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ABSTRACT

This volume, which describes the status of public education in Utah for the year 1993-94, focuses on the issue of educational reform. Following the introduction and overview, chapter 1 reviews reform legislation and implementation efforts during the last decade. It describes the context for reform in political, demographic, and economic terms. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the two "waves" of curricular reform that occurred within the last decade and how they have affected Utah schools. The third chapter offers a typology of employee-involvement approaches in personnel reform. Current efforts to serve more students with disabilities are described in the fourth chapter. Chapter 5 analyzes the impact of technology on education and examines the issues of access, equity, effectiveness, and cost. The impact of three reforms pertaining to school guidance and counseling is assessed in chapter 6. Chapter 7 describes current trends emerging in state finance cases and applies the framework to an examination of Utah's school finance plan. The final chapter offers an overview of 10 legislative actions taken during the 1993 Utah legislative session. Taken together, the chapters illustrate the concepts underlying school reform in Utah--openness, inclusiveness, individualization, accountability, and productivity. Twenty tables and three figures are included. References accompany each chapter. (LMI)

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CONDITIONS OF EDUCATION IN UTAH

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Educational Reform in Utah: The Years of Promise

Editors
Patrick F. Galvin
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Published by the

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Educational Reform in Utah:
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1993-94
Conditions of Education In Utah

Editors
Patrick F. Galvin & David J. Sperry

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FORWARD

This is the second edition of Conditions of Education in Utah, which this year is entitled "Educational Reform in Utah: The Years of Promise, 1993-1994." Included in this year's publication are chapters on governance, curriculum, special education programs, school counseling, personnel, technology, and finance. The material contained in these chapters should be of interest to virtually anyone concerned about the status of educational reform in Utah, including policy makers, educators and parents.

This year's document consciously attempts to address the issues of education reform in Utah. The publication begins with a chapter that reviews and analyzes the reform trends in Utah for the last ten years. Each chapter that follows focuses more specifically on the reform movement in certain areas of education: personnel, curriculum, at-risk programs, etc. The chapters not only provide a descriptive overview of these reform movements but also critically analyze these trends.

The Conditions of Education in Utah has been produced by the Utah Education Policy Center, which is a part of the Graduate School of Education at the University of Utah. The idea of an annual "Conditions of Education" publication is not original with the Utah Education Policy Center. Similar publications are produced by university-based educational policy centers in other parts of the country. These efforts, as noted by the California policy group (PACE), are generally aimed at accomplishing the following goals: (1) to collect and distribute objective information about the conditions of education, (2) to analyze state educational policy issues and the policy environment, (3) to evaluate school reforms and state educational practices, (4) to provide technical support to policy-makers, and (5) to facilitate discussion of educational issues.

This document is based on public information, data which have been collected by public and private agencies, publications by researchers and other experts in the field of education, and related disciplines as well as original data that have been collected and analyzed by the contributing authors. These sources are noted throughout the text. The analysis and conclusions in this publication are those of the authors and are not necessarily endorsed by the Utah Education Policy Center, the Graduate School of Education, or the University of Utah.

Readers' written suggestions and observations are most welcome. Please send your comments to the Utah Education Policy Center, c/o the Department of Educational Administration, 339 Milton Bennion Hall, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112.

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Individual authors have collected data and suggestions for their chapters from many sources. Some of the people from the Utah State Office of Education that have contributed time, expertise, and support are listed below:

- Dr. Jerry P. Peterson, Associate Superintendent, Instructional Services
- Dr. Bonnie Morgan, Director, Curriculum and Instruction
- Mr. Richard Gomez, Coordinator, Educational Equity
- Dr. David E. Nelson, Director, Evaluation and Assessment
- Dr. Joyce Hansen, Specialist, Accreditation and International Education
- Dr. Larry Horyna, Coordinator, Strategic Planning
- Dr. Douglas F. Bates, Coordinator, School Law and Legislation
- Dr. Stevan J. Kukic, Director, Services for At Risk Students.
- Dr. Hal Robin, Coordinator, School Finance and Statitics
- Dr. Vicky Dahn, Project Director, Instructional Technology/ETI

Most importantly, however, individual authors have contributed enormous amounts of their time and effort in researching and writing chapters for the publication. These efforts are dedicated to the Utah educational community. It is hoped that this volume and future publications will contribute to the well being of public education in Utah and, more specifically to the education of Utah's children.

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INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW: 1993-94 CONDITIONS OF EDUCATION IN UTAH

The chapters written for this volume of the Conditions of Education In Utah, 1993-94, focus on the issue of educational reform. Reform is a vague concept addressing the feeling that public schools are not "doing very well." The problem with talking about reform is that it can mean something different to everyone and thereby end up meaning nothing at all. Nonetheless the authors in this volume have identified major streams of reform and have thereby attempted to give shape and substance to the concepts, legislation, and practice of school reform in Utah.

The chapters are bound by some common themes although they differ significantly in content, style, and approach to the issues of reform. In the first chapter Bob Johnson reviews reform legislation and implementation efforts during the last decade. He also identifies the context for reform in Utah in political, demographic, and economic terms. Within this context, Johnson continues his analysis by establishing a typology of axes and a description of the tensions which characterized education reform in Utah. The first of these pits concerns for productivity and efficiency against the quest for quality and effectiveness. The second of these--strategic planning and decentralization of governance--are likewise dominant and may be interpreted as representing sets of reform that contribute further to the realization of greater system efficiency and effectiveness. Taken together, Johnson states, "these four axes--efficiency, effectiveness, strategic planning, and school governance--define the dominant contours of educational reform in Utah since 1983." In conclusion, Johnson describes Utah as a politically fragmented state with quickly changing demographic and economic circumstances that will frustrate efforts to develop a coherent reform agenda.

Carolyn Shields and Karen Berner provide an extensive overview describing the "waves" of curricular reform in Utah during the last decade. These authors identify two waves of curricular reform. The first, "begun in the early 1980s, emphasized standardization and control of curriculum, while the second wave introduced reforms that were associated with flexibility and local initiative." Emanating from these two reform movements are four themes underlying curricular reform efforts in Utah, categorized as: 1) changes in the educational mission; 2) utilization of technology; 3) inclusion of parents in school planning; and, 4) development of new educational partnerships. While expressing concern about drowning educators in reform initiatives, these authors express optimism that clearer policies supporting a "world class curriculum,": and empowerment of administrators and teachers will facilitate the implementation of successful curriculum reform in Utah.

Utah has been actively involved with "redesigning" the work environment of educators. Diana Pounder provides the reader with a typology of employee involvement approaches that classifies personnel reform efforts into three types: 1) suggestion involvement; 2) job involvement; and, 3) high involvement. The first category, suggestion involvement, simply creates opportunities for employees to offer advice for improving the organization. The second category, job involvement, seeks to redesign work--either at the individual job level or at the work group level--to enhance employee motivation and performance. The third category, high involvement, goes significantly beyond either of the previous involvement approaches and requires redesign of virtually every aspect of the organization and its structure and processes, an approach with limited viability in education. Pounder concludes that most of Utah's involvement initiatives for personnel have been either suggestion involvement or individual job redesign, but that the greatest promise is in work group enhancement efforts and the corresponding school structural changes.

Dixie Huefner, John McDonnell, and Marshall Welch describe current efforts to serve more Utah students with disabilities in regular schools and regular classrooms in the State of Utah. Their overview provides a description of the legislative framework underpinning current policies supporting "inclusion" reforms. Further, the chapter provides a description of University of Utah program training and evaluation activities to illustrate both the potential and the problems associated with implementing such a reform effort. Their general message is that the promotion and implementation of inclusionary policies, where students with disabilities receive special services in regular classrooms, will require support from a broad constituency of parents, administrators, and teachers to be successful. Pre- and in-service training are necessary to support and sustain the reform effort. "At a minimum," the authors argue, "the introduction of inclusive delivery systems must include staff acceptance and ongoing staff training, administrative leadership, support services, and commitments of time for planning and collaboration."

The promise of computer technology is not simply the reform of teacher/student interactions within the classroom but rather a promise of transforming the mortar and brick edifices of the past to include the global information networks of the future. But the promise of such a technology also raises questions about access, equity, effectiveness, and cost. These issues are examined using data from the Utah experience. Patrick Galvin concludes that the expansion of computer technologies as a means by which to reform the effectiveness of public education will face increasing tensions with issues of accountability and equity.

Three reform initiatives identified by Dorlene Walker are profoundly influencing the character and work of school guidance counselors in public schools. Walker notes that the most significant reform issue for school counselors is the implementation of a comprehensive guidance/counseling model. Numerous influences, including questions about the role of counselors, accountability, and changes in practice have come together to give the comprehensive guidance/counseling model shape. The heart of the model requires counselors to develop and monitor a Student Educational Plan for each student that focuses on the student's career intent and course of study. This idea was incorporated in the Utah State Public Education Strategic Plan with a title change: Student Educational and Occupation Plan (SEOP). Thus, the role and responsibility of counselors is no longer to serve the needs of some students but rather to develop an individualized plan (course of study) for all students. The success of these and other reforms affecting counselors in schools will depend upon the support structures necessary to accomplish the task. In other words, Walker warns Utah's educators not to expect counselors to assume the enormous load of these responsibilities without adequate support.

In the last decade, some 24 state finance cases have been brought to state supreme courts. Of these, 12 decisions have found the finance of public education both unconstitutional and irrational. School finance litigation is, according to some, the very engine of educational reform. Patrick Galvin describes the current trends emerging in state finance cases and applies the framework to an examination of Utah's school finance plan. He concludes that there are good reasons why Utah has not been subject to a school finance lawsuit, but such reasons do not preclude the possibility of such cases being filed in the future.

Bob Johnson and David Sperry provide an overview of legislative action taken during the 1993 Utah Legislative Session. This chapter provides a succinct description of legislation affecting educators throughout the state. After reviewing ten pieces of legislation, the authors conclude: "With the exception of the Centennial Schools Program, none of the actions noted [in this chapter] represent a radical departure from existing practices. Most represent refinements to existing legislation or the codification of that which exists de facto."

As previously noted, the chapters cover a great deal of material and, in that respect, provide readers with a reference of considerable breadth. As a whole, the document also provides the reader with a discussion focusing on educational reform in Utah. Unifying these chapters are several themes. Perhaps most fundamental is a recognition of the need for change. If the axiom that half the solution to a problem is recognizing that problems exist, one could say educators are in danger of drowning in half the solution. But recognizing the problems education faces is not a trivial matter, for it leads to a fundamental value of current reform ideology: collaboration. If education were once a bastion of safety from the vulgarities of daily life, where cloistered students came to experience "the classics," education has changed. If education were once a neatly organized hierarchy where "professionals" had clear jurisdiction based on content expertise, education has changed. If education were once held accountable solely by the justice of Jeffersonian principles, the environment has again changed.

Embodied in these eight chapters is the framework of change and reform in Utah, one that is based largely on concepts of openness, inclusiveness, individualization, accountability, and productivity. Across the spectrum of disciplines discussed in the following chapters is a changing governance structure that no longer clearly defines the boundaries of its profession: teachers are being invited to share the administrative responsibilities of schools; businesses are encouraged to collaborate with schools; and district administrators are encouraged relinquish the reigns of authority. There is an openness in the governance of public education that appears new and perhaps confusing. Part of the confusion is the tendency to describe these trends simply in terms of market forces. In such a perspective matters of individualization and choice are simply seen as a means towards accountability and productivity. But to set the reform efforts in such a manner is to miss the collaborative and inclusive character of these events. An economic model establishing a conceptual framework by which to understand competitive forces in an environment of scarcity misses the collaborative and inclusive character of the reforms discussed in these chapters.

The discussion in the following chapters, while detailing the current events of reform efforts in Utah during the last few years, really captures a much larger phenomena. Reading these chapters one gets a clear sense of the theoretical crisis confronting an organizational structure that has served society well for a hundred years or more. These failures are due to forces well beyond the hands of school room teachers and administrators. The forces--changing world markets and economies, changing labor markets, changing demographics and social structures--require a new theory by which to understand the nature and organization of education in society. If once we understood schools as bureaucracies in isolation, today we must understand them as "non-profit organizations" in a market economy. If once schools were assured of a large share of tax revenues, in the future they will be increasingly required to justify and fight for their share. The following chapters should be viewed in this context--each describing a part of the story but together reflecting a changing landscape or seascape if you prefer. The challenge of reform is not to fix the system of the past but forge the system of the future. The chapters presented here do not pretend to develop a new theory of school organization, but readers may find the material enlightening when read with such a framework in mind.

The Editors
Patrick F. Galvin & David J. Sperry

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROFILE AND CHARACTER OF EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN UTAH, 1983-1993: AN INTERPRETATION AND CRITIQUE

By: Bob L. Johnson, Jr.

HIGHLIGHTS

- To understand the evolution of educational reform in Utah since 1983, one must consider the social, political, demographic and economic context of the State.
- Five "contextual contours" define educational reform in Utah: educational valuation and aspirations; booming public school enrollments; declining to moderately expanding educational expenditures; an appreciation of the public education economic development relationship; and a historic "minimalist" tax mood. When juxtaposed, these contours function to create a certain level of tension within the State's political system.
- The primary conundrum facing educational policy-makers in Utah is that of booming enrollments and moderately expanding educational revenues.
- The predominant reform values expressed in Utah educational policy since 1983 have been efficiency and effectiveness. Thus, a degree of coherency does characterize educational reform efforts in the State.
- The reform initiatives which have emerged in Utah are in many ways consistent with and reflective of the ferment which has characterized American education since 1983. At the same time, however, the unique context of Utah yields certain distinctive features.
- In their efforts to improve Utah's system of public education, policy-makers have and will continue to face a number of difficult choices.

The purpose of this chapter is to offer a critical review of the nature and progress of public education reform in the State of Utah since 1983. A review of this sort would appear to be significant for a number of reasons. First, such an endeavor provides policy-makers and the public with information and ideas regarding the nature and progress of educational reform within the state. What reforms have taken place in Utah? How has reform progressed? Second, the State of Utah was uniquely represented in the development of A Nation at Risk in the personages of Terrel Bell, then Secretary of Education and David Gardner, Chair of the National Commission on Excellence in Education and one time president of the University of Utah. The high-profile roles played by these Utah educators in the development of this significant report leads the curious mind to inquire as to the nature and progress of reform in a the state so well represented at the national level. Third, the uniqueness of Utah among the states in terms of its religious and cultural heritage makes a study such as this of interest. How is this heritage reflected in reform?

Bob L. Johnson, Jr. is an Assistant Professor, Department of Educational Administration, University of Utah

The discussion which follows is divided into three major sections. The first offers a description of the general context of reform, i.e. the social, cultural, and political character of the state. Understanding this milieu is crucial for appreciating the unique aspects of policy-making in Utah. This contextual backdrop is followed by a description of the pattern of education reform in Utah. Here, those reforms deemed most representative of this pattern are identified and grouped. Inasmuch as the information is available, the effects of each are also discussed. The paper concludes by offering a critique of reform efforts in the state. Particular attention is given to identifying the values, themes, strengths and weaknesses of these efforts. Included in this critique is a discussion of the options currently available to educational policy makers.

The Context of Reform in Utah

Political Context

Political culture has been defined as that set of underlying values, beliefs, sentiments, and assumptions that govern behavior in a political system. Using the state as the unit of analysis, Elazar (1982) has identified three distinct political culture-types. While no state completely personifies any one of these cultures, the "moralistic" orientation identified by Elazar offers the most valid description of Utah's political system. Within such a culture, government is perceived by citizens as being the means for achieving the good of the commonweal. Further, public service, citizen involvement, and issue emphasis in political debates are valued. The major sign of Utah's moralistic orientation is the perhaps its commonwealth concept of government. As evidenced by the comprehensive welfare programs of the Mormon Church, Utah has a long tradition of individuals in both private and public sectors, working together for the public good. Citizen involvement is further reflected in higher than average voter participation rates and the proliferation of advisory committees at various levels of government.

Consistent with this moralistic orientation, politics in Utah is conservative and is often perceived by outsiders as being extremely right wing (Hrebenar, Cherry, & Greene, 1987). At the national level, the state's two U.S. Senators have, in times past, received the most conservative rating of any pair in the nation. Likewise, in past presidential elections Utah has often been the most Republican state.[1]

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[1] In the 1980, 84, and 88 presidential elections, Utah had the highest electorate percentage of any state voting Republican. In 1992, only 4 other states had a higher percentage of their electorate voting republican than Utah. While the highest percentage voting Republican was found in Mississippi (50%), 46% of Utah voters supported Bush, see Congressional Quarterly Weekly Report, 38 45 (Nov 8, 1980): 3299; 42 45 (Nov 10, 1984): 2931; 46 (Nov 12,

This conservatism is also reflected in the state's legislature. Historically, the Republican party has dominated state government. This remains true in spite of the incremental gains made by Democrats in recent years.[2] In 1993, 18 of the 29 members of the Senate were Republicans, as were 49 of the 75 members of the House. Church influence is somewhat pervasive in the state's legislature. The fact that most are members of the Mormon Church tends to make the legislature rather homogeneous and conservative.[3] As a result, ideas and values associated with a limited view of government tend to guide legislative decisions, i.e. fiscal conservatism, minimalist tax burden, concern for tradition, etc. On moral issues and as a result of the influence of the Church, state government tends to be ultra-conservative. Yet, while moral conservatism is dominant in Utah, it is important to realize that the culture is not as monolithic as initial exposure might suggest; not all Utahns who claim to be Mormon are devout practitioners, not all Mormons are Republicans, not all Utahns are Mormon. Political cleavages exist in the state along a variety of dimensions: Mormon vs. non-Mormon, Republican vs. Democrat, conservative vs. liberal, urban vs. rural, north vs. south, Wasatch Front vs. non-Wasatch Front etc. Nevertheless, moral conservatism is dominant in Utah.

Demographic and Economic Contexts

An understanding of the demographic and economic trends in Utah further illuminates the context of educational reform since 1983. During the decade of the 80s, the state experienced a population growth of 17.9%. While above the national rate of 9.8%, this growth rate is below the 20.1% average of the mountain states. The demographic uniqueness of Utah is to be found in the age of its population. The state has the youngest population in the country; approximately 37% of its residents are below the age of 18. This statistic accentuates the enrollment problem that has faced public education in Utah for several years. Since 1979, fall enrollments for public education have experienced a 38.6% growth; this compares with a 0.5% growth nationwide over the same period.

Coupled with these demographic statistics, key economic indicators suggest that over the past decade Utah's economy has on average fared somewhat better than the national economy. This would appear to be the case in spite of the state's economic downturn and

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1988): 3245; 50 44 (Nov 7, 1992): 3552. See also Robert Loevy, "The Two Party Index: Toward a Standard Statistic for Comparing United States Elections," Social Science Journal 21 2 (April 1984): 1-14.

[2] Utah Democrats have made incremental yet consistent gains in both chambers since the 43rd Legislative Session (1979-80). See Utah Legislative Manual for each respective session.

[3] Over 80% of the current Utah Legislature (1993-94) is Mormon, see Dave Johnson, "Surprise: Typical Utah Lawmaker is White, Mormon Male." Salt Lake Tribune, Tuesday, January 19, 1993.

revenue shortfalls of the early and mid 80s. As indicated by Table 1.1, Utah's unemployment rate has consistently remained below the national average since 1980; the year 1987 represents the sole exception. Whereas the average annual unemployment rate at the national level has been 7.1% since 1980, Utah's average rate over that same period has been 6.3%. A second trend of interest also emerges from the data in Table 1.1. A comparison of the annual unemployment rates in Utah between the periods 1980-1987 and 1988-present, reveal a general pattern of decline. In sharp contrast to the 9.5% rate of 1983, Utah is presently experiencing its lowest unemployment rate in 14 years, 4.9%. Statistics concerning annual job-growth further corroborate the recent dynamics of Utah's economy. The figures of Table 1.1 indicate a steady growth in the number of jobs since 1988. The consistency of this pattern contrasts with the more erratic growth experienced from 1980 to 1987.

Table 1.1
Utah Unemployment and Job Growth Rates, 1979-1993

	Unemployment Rates (%)		Job Growth (%)	
	Utah	USA[a]		Utah
1979	4.6	5.8	-1.2	-
1980	6.6	7.1	-0.5	0.5
1981	6.9	7.6	-0.7	1.3
1982	8.1	9.7	-1.6	0.3
1983	9.5	9.6	-0.1	1.0
1984	6.8	7.5	-0.7	6.0
1985	6.2	7.2	-1.0	3.9
1986	6.3	7.0	-0.7	1.8
1987	6.6	6.2	0.4	1.0
1988	5.2	5.5	-0.3	3.1
1989	5.0	5.3	-0.3	3.9
1990	4.6	5.5	-0.9	4.7
1991	5.1	6.7	-1.6	4.7
1992	4.9	7.5	-2.6	3.0
1993	4.7	7.2	-2.5	-

[a] Difference between National and State Unemployment Rate (USA % - Utah %).
Source: Utah Department of Employment Security. Utah Labor Market Report 2 11 (Nov 1992).

Contextual Implications for Reform in Utah

Taken together, each of these specific contexts--the social, political, demographic, and economic--comprise the general context of reform in Utah. It would appear that the values, demands, and pressures generated by the interaction of these specific contexts have functioned to dictate the character and progression of educational reform in recent years. While describing the full complexity of this process is beyond the scope of this paper, certain general contours emerging from this interaction can be identified. What follows is an attempt to sketch--in broad strokes--these complementary and oft countervailing contours.

C1: Educational valuation and aspirations. As a result of the social and religious influences found in the state, the well being of children and the development of strong families are highly valued in Utah. Large, cohesive families are encouraged. Consistent with Mormon theology, the "strong-cohesive" family is characterized by its industriousness, self-initiative, and civic and moral virtue. It would appear that the significance afforded education lies, among other things, in its ability to assist the culture in realizing these values. Utahns express confidence and impose high expectations on their system of public education. The level of educational attainment found in the state attests to this valuation. Utah consistently ranks at or above the national average on a variety of indicators: the percentage of Utahns with a high school diploma is one of the highest in the nation at 87.5%[4]; the percentage with 4 or more years of college is likewise above the national average at 22.4%[5] ; over the past decade, ACT composite score-averages in Utah have consistently been above the national average;[6] and Utah ranks first among the 50 states in the percentage of its students who take and pass AP examinations in core subject areas.[7]

C2: Booming public school enrollments. Yet, while quality education is both valued and demanded, the existence of large families in the state, as expressed in growing public school enrollments, has in recent years put substantial pressure on Utah's system of public education. Out of necessity, a percentage of the monies needed to address demands regarding the quality of education has been diverted to address the demands created by burgeoning enrollments in the state. This conundrum is highlighted in enrollment figures found in Table 1.2. As noted earlier, the 38.6% enrollment boom experienced in Utah since 1979 stands in stark contrast to the 0.5% increase experienced over the same period nationwide. As a result, policy-makers in the state find themselves facing a unique and unenviable condition: Utah has the highest pupil-teacher ratio in the nation. An examination of Table 1.2 reveals that the pupil-teacher ratio in Utah has not only been consistently above the national average but that the difference between Utah and the rest of the nation has increased. Thus, the demands created by booming enrollments define an important contextual contour for understanding the nature and direction of educational reform in Utah over the past decade.

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[4] Over 80% of the current Utah Legislature (1993-94) is Mormon, see Dave Johnson, "Surprise: Typical Utah Lawmaker is White, Mormon Male." Salt Lake Tribune, Tuesday, January 19, 1993.

[5] Ibid., in terms of the percentage of it population with 4 or more years of college, Utah ranks 17th among the states.

[6] Office of the Legislative Fiscal Analyst. Utah Public Education Data Book. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah State Legislature, 1993: 26, 28.

[7] Ibid., 45f.

Table 1.2
Key Educational Demographics and Statistics: Utah, 1979-1993

	Fall Enrollment		Pupil-Teacher Ratio		Per Pupil Expenditures		
YEAR	Utah	Utah	USA	Δ[a]	Utah	USA	Rank[b]
1979-80	332,600	23.8	19.1	+4.7	1,657	2,272	47th
1980-81	342,900	23.9	18.7	+5.2	1,819	2,502	47th
1981-82	354,540	24.4	18.8	+5.6	1,872	2,726	45th
1982-83	369,338	25.0	18.6	+6.4	2,014	2,955	47th
1983-84	378,208	24.8	18.4	+6.4	2,053	3,173	50th
1984-85	390,141	24.6	18.1	+6.5	2,220	3,470	50th
1985-86	403,305	24.7	17.9	+6.8	2,390	3,756	49th
1986-87	415,994	24.6	17.7	+6.9	2,415	3,977	49th
1987-88	423,386	25.0	17.6	+7.4	2,454	4,217	50th
1988-89	429,551	24.9	17.3	+7.6	2,579	4,601	50th
1989-90	435,762	24.7	17.2	+7.5	2,733	4,890	50th
1990-91	444,732	24.5	17.2	+7.3	3,000	5,241	50th
1991-92	454,218	23.9	17.2	+6.7	3,092	5,446	50th
1992-93	461,259	23.1	17.2	+5.9	-	-	-
since 1979	+38.6%[c]	-3%	-10%	+26%		+86%	+140%

a) Difference between USA and Utah Pupil-Teacher ratio, (Utah Ratio - USA Ratio).

b) Rank among the 50 States.

c) National public school enrollments have increase 0.5% since 1979.

Sources: U.S. Department of Education, Digest of Education Statistics, 1992: 160f; Utah State Office of Education, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1991-92, 1992:42; Office of Legislative Analyst. Utah Public Education Data Book, 1993: 30.

C3: Declining to moderately expanding educational expenditures. Coupled with Utah's problem of increased enrollments are those demands created as a result of limited financial resources. The growth of revenues supporting public education in the state has not matched the growth of enrollments. An examination of educational expenditure patterns in Utah over the past 10 years indicates that while total expenditures for education have consistently increased since 1982, per pupil expenditures have not.[8] This disparity between enrollment and revenue growth has resulted in lower than average per pupil expenditures. When compared with the rest of the nation, Utah ranks last in per pupil expenditures. As can be seen from Table 1.2, the gap between Utah and the nation in per pupil expenditures has increasingly widened since 1979. The state's inability to maintain funding levels consistent with enrollment growth marks a third contextual contour for understanding reform efforts in the state since 1983.

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[8] Utah Public Education Data Book, 1993: 26, 28.

C4: An appreciation of the public education-economic development relationship. In addition to the value afforded education for its role in strengthening the family, education is valued in Utah as a means of economic development. This contextual contour would appear to be a common theme among most, if not all, states. For this reason, little elaboration will be offered here. Suffice it to say, Utah's last three governors have run on strong educational platforms; the two most recent have prided themselves as being "education governors." The cultural value placed on education coupled most notably with the state's work ethic, family values and fiscal conservatism have made Utah an attractive location for business in recent years. Realizing the importance of such assets, much of the drive for reform in the last decade has been motivated by the desire to create and maintain a healthy state economy.

C5: Historic "minimalist" tax mood. A fifth significant contour in the tapestry of educational reform is the historic "minimalist" tax mood which exists in Utah. Consistently reflected in both legislative and executive leadership, the source of this sentiment can be traced to the state's conservative political culture. The intensity of this sentiment, while varying over time, is perhaps best personified in the size and activities of the state's taxpayers' organization. As a business-based association, the Utah Taxpayer's Association is among the largest and most active of its kind in the nation.[9] Given that Utah ranks 36th in population among the 50 states, this is somewhat indicative of public sentiment.[10] Further evidence of this mood can seen in the successful efforts of the Utah Tax Limitation Coalition in placing three tax limitation/cut proposals on the November 1988 ballot. In the spirit of California's Proposition 13 and Colorado's Amendment 1, the appearance of these proposals represented a reaction to the tax increases necessitated by the state's revenue shortfalls of the early and mid 80s. While narrowly defeated, the popularity of these initiatives reflects the presence of a significant minimalist tax mood in Utah.

The Character and Impact of Reform in Utah

Attempts to characterize the progress of educational reform in a given state must initially grapple with two basic questions: 1) What constitutes "reform"? and 2) What constitutes "significant" reform? To probe the full implications and difficulties surrounding the issues raised by these questions is beyond the scope of this paper. Nevertheless, such issues are raised for the purpose of highlighting the difficulties inherent in an attempt to portray the character of reform in a state over an extended period of time. The strategy taken in this assessment is to identify those reform/change measures that depict the contours noted above. Such reforms may be conceptualized as axes of sorts around which subsequent change has clustered in recent years. Conceptualizing and identifying "significant" reform in this manner underscores the relationship between the state's context, as noted above, and subsequent legislation. Thus, the reform measures that have surfaced in Utah may be seen as expressions of those contours, demands, and countervailing tensions which have characterized the state in recent years.

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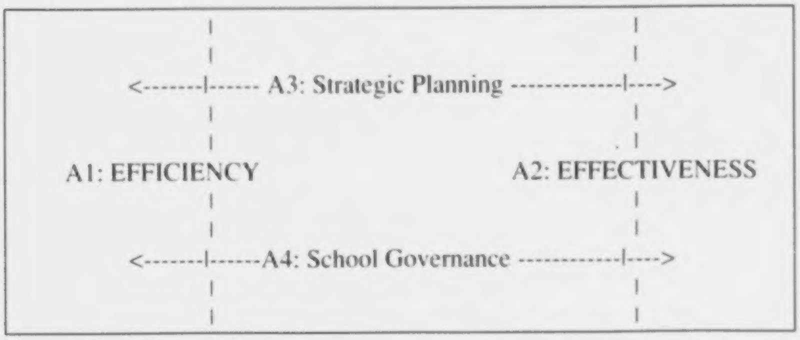
[9] Telephone interview with Mark Buchi, Associate Director of the Utah Taxpayers Association, May 11, 1993.

[10] 1990 U.S. Census.

Rather than identify and examine each specific educational change that has occurred in Utah since 1983, four general axes of reform will be identified and discussed: efficiency, effectiveness, strategic planning, and governance. These axes are identified in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Axes / Cluster-Patterns of Reform in Utah, 1983-1994



Before proceeding with a discussion of these axes, however, a few caveats regarding the usefulness and limitations of this figure are worth noting: 1) Figure 1 is offered as a heuristic device, i.e. an aid to conceptualizing and summarizing the broad patterns of educational change that have occurred in Utah since 1983. As such, it is not meant to be exhaustive and unequivocal in its representation; it is not a perfect model. Nevertheless, such realizations do not negate the Figure's utility. In addition to the patterns of change it seeks to portray, the utility of Figure 1 is found in the common ground it provides for discussion of educational change in Utah. 2) While these axes are in no way meant to be exclusive or diametrically opposed, it will be noted that the former--efficiency and effectiveness--hint at a more inclusive classification scheme than the latter. This inclusiveness is noted by the capitalization and vertical bearing given to both axes. In fact, and as will be argued below, recent activities focusing on strategic planning and educational governance may be interpreted as specific means to achieving greater efficiency and effectiveness. The attention given such ideas by policy-makers in recent years justifies the separate identification and discussion of both strategic planning and governance. 3) The ambiguity and complexity which currently surround discussions of "efficiency" and "effectiveness," i.e. the definitions of each and the relationship they share, are also recognized here. For sake of clarity, policies classified under the "efficiency" heading are identified as those enacted primarily to maximize the ratio of inputs to outputs; policies classified under the "effectiveness" heading are identified as those enacted to increase or improve the number and/or quality of outcomes.

Efficiency Reform Axis

The first group of educational reform measures that have appeared in Utah since 1983 cluster around an axis of efficiency. As a response to the state's moderately expanding revenues and rapidly expanding student enrollments, this cluster is perhaps best represented by two reform measures: the Public School Reform Improvement Act of 1984 (HB 179) and the Year-Round School and Effective Facility Use Program initiated in 1985. Passed by the legislature shortly after the appearance of A Nation at Risk, the Public School Reform Improvement Act of 1984 (PSRIA-84) was enacted to "promote and increase quality, efficiency and productivity in the public school system" of Utah.[11] Specifically, HB 179 directed the Utah State Board of Education to improve both efficiency and productivity in 12 specific areas of Utah's system of public education: use of capital facilities; school building design; use of school volunteers; development of year-round educational programs; re-evaluation of extra-curricular activities; development of efficient school discipline policies; transportation; administrative & fiscal procedures; class size; educational technology use; curriculum reform; and standing patterns/increased workload.[12]

While concern for the quality of education was a prominent feature of PSRIA-84, the specific definition of productivity that accompanied various programs associated with the Act reveals an over-riding concern with efficiency. Such concerns are reflected in the definition offered by the state Department of Education as late as 1991, "...'productivity' means improving the quality of educational programs while serving more students with the same or less money or serving the same number of students with less money."[13]

Although Legislative appropriations for increased productivity and efficiency within the system were made available as early as 1981, the significance of the Public School Reform Improvement Act is found in the amount of money designated for such purposes. Whereas the largest amount of funds appropriated for productivity studies prior to 1984 was

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[11] Journal of the House of Representatives of the State of Utah: 45th Legislature Budget Session. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah State Legislature, 1984.

[12] Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Utah, 1983-84. Utah State Office of Education, 1984: 5f.

[13] Utah State Office of Education. Utah Educational Reform Programs, 1989-90. Salt Lake City, Utah, 1991: 52.

$300,000, passage of PSRIA-84 witnessed a significant appropriation increase to $1 million. Subsequent annual appropriations approached the $1.5 million mark as late as 1990.[14] The passage and implementation of PSRIA-84 generated pilot programs of various types across Utah's 40 districts. In addition, PSRIA-84 functioned to focus the legislature's attention in subsequent years on two specific areas that further define the character of reform in the state: Year-Round School/Effective Facility Use legislation and the Educational Technology Initiative.

As an outgrowth of the Public School Reform Improvement Act of 1984, the Year-Round School Incentive Program was created and funded by the 1985 legislature. Driven by efficiency concerns, an initial sum of $1 million was appropriated to deal with expanding enrollments. Much like PSRIA-84, funds allocated to the program were distributed to school districts on a competitive application basis. Since its creation in 1985, several pieces of legislation further delineating guidelines and qualifications for state aid have appeared. As of 1991, the state has invested well over $8 million in the development of year-round schools and effective facility use programs. These unique programs have had a profound impact on traditional school scheduling patterns in Utah over the last decade. For the year ending 1992-93, 85 of Utah's 655 traditional schools were participating in year round programs; approximately 47 schools were operating extended-day/modified double session educational programs.[15] Taken together, these and other scheduling models currently involve over 20% of the state's student population, distinguishing Utah from other states.[16] In addition, it is estimated that such programs have saved the state over $50 million dollars in capital outlay since 1985. Given continued growth in enrollments and concomitant costs, the future will likely see an expansion of such scheduling options in Utah.

Effectiveness Reform Axis

The second set of reform measures clusters around an effectiveness axis. Driven by concerns for quality, four specific reforms characterize this cluster: 1) Utah's Teacher Career Ladder System (HB 110: 1984); 2) the Revised Statewide Core Curriculum Standards of 1987; 3) the Statewide Standardized Student Achievement Testing Program (HB 321: 1990); and 4) the Educational Technology Initiative (HB 468: 1990). While each is concerned with effectiveness, it will be noticed that the focus or point of leverage for each varies, i.e. career ladder--teachers, curriculum standards--curriculum, standardized testing--students, and technology initiative--instructional delivery.

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[14] Ibid. pp. 51f.

[15] Annual Report of the Utah State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1991-92, pp. 40f.

[16] bid., p. 10. Utah continues to lead the nation with the country's highest proportion of districts, schools, teachers, and students on non-traditional calendars or schedules.

On the heels of the publication of A Nation At Risk and in response to the recommendations made by a blue ribbon committee appointed by Governor Scott Matheson, the 1984 legislature enacted the Utah Teacher Career Ladder System, HB 110 (UCLS). Motivations for this teacher-focused reform, as expressed in the original legislation, were four-fold: to recognize the need to reward excellence in teaching; to provide incentives toward the pursuit of teaching excellence; to reward excellence in teaching; and to compensate teachers who assume additional educational responsibilities.[17]

The Utah Career Ladder System (UCLS) represents a decentralized approach of sorts. As funded by the state, the law allows each local district to develop and submit its own teacher compensation plan for state approval. This policy approach has resulted in the emergence of 40 career ladder plans, each original and unique to the state's 40 districts. Currently, state guidelines allow for the allocation of Career Ladder funds for the following component areas: performance/merit bonus, career ladder differentiation, extended contract year, job enlargement allocation, and incentive funding for teacher shortages.[18]

To date, approximately $300 million has been appropriated for UCLS.[19] While no formal assessment of its impact on student achievement has been made, attempts have been made to assess the impact of UCLS on teacher attraction, retention, and performance. An independent evaluation conducted in 1987 revealed broad support for UCLS among education professionals.[20] The Utah State Office of Education surveyed teachers regarding their attitudes towards UCLS in 1985; this was followed by similar surveys in 1990 and 1991. The 1990 and 1991 surveys indicate that teachers were slightly more positive about the educational impact of UCLS than in 1985. For example, teachers judged the impact of UCLS on the structure and attractiveness of teaching profession as favorable. Over 64% of the teachers surveyed in 1991 reported that the Career Ladder System enabled them to improve the quality of their own instruction; more than 80% indicated that UCLS should be continued.

Since the enactment of the Utah Career Ladder System, more than 66% of the state's teachers have received bonuses for outstanding teaching and promotions to higher ladder levels.[21] Yet in spite of these advancements, Utah teachers remain among the lowest paid in the country. A year by year comparison of average teacher salaries for Utah and the US is presented in Table 1.3. As can be seen, teachers' salaries in Utah have consistently fallen below the national average; this remains true in spite of UCLS. Since its passage in 1984, the average salary for teachers has risen approximately 27%; this compares with a 46% increase over the same period at the national level. Thus, while educators have positive *feelings regarding the impact of UCLS on the quality of their profession and performance*, the disparity in teachers salaries between Utah and the nation has widened since its implementation.

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[17] Utah Code Unannotated 1992, 53A-9-101.

[18] Utah Code Unannotated 1992, 53A-9-103.

[19] Utah State Office of Education. Utah's Educational Reform Programs, 1991-93, p. 9f.

[20] Mary Amsler, Douglas Mitchell, Linda Nelson, & Thomas Timar, "An Evaluation of the Utah Career Ladder System." Far West Laboratory for Education Research and Development, 1988.

[21] Utah State Office of Education.

Table 1.3
Average Teacher Salaries: Utah vs USA, 1979-1992

YEAR	Utah Average	Utah Average w/Career Ladder[a]	National Average	Δ Average National vs Utah[b]
79-80	14,909	*	15,970	1,061
80-81	16,900	*	17,644	744
81-82	18,106	*	19,274	1,168
82-83	19,859	*	20,695	836
83-84	20,007	*	21,935	1,928
84-85	21,170	22,062	23,600	1,538
85-86	22,603	24,295	25,199	904
86-87	23,035	24,874	26,569	1,695
87-88	22,572	24,491	28,034	3,543
88-89	22,852	24,814	29,568	4,754
89-90	23,735	25,580	31,350	5,770
90-91	25,578	27,423	32,977	5,554
91-92	26,339	28,072	34,413	6,341
Δ since 1984-85[c]	+24%	+27%	+46%	+312%

a) The Utah Career Ladder System was enacted in January 1984, HB 110, 1984.

b) Δ = National Average - Utah Average w/Career Ladder.

c) The percentage change since the first year of the Utah Career Ladder System, 1984-85.

Source: Office of the Legislative Fiscal Analyst. Utah Public Education Data Book. Salt Lake City Utah: Utah State Legislature, 1993: 7f.

A second set of reforms that reflects the state's concern for the effectiveness of its educational system is to be found in the Revised Statewide Core Curriculum Standards of 1987. Consistent again with the recommendations made by the Governor's blue ribbon committee in its 1983 report Education in Utah: A Call to Action, the Utah State Board of Education established a policy requiring the identification of core curriculum standards and discrete behavioral learning objectives for grades K-12. Constructed on the premise of mastery learning and consistent with national education goals, the stated purposes of the new standards were "to provide a solid education foundation for every student" and "to prepare students for the changing world of living and competition in the informational age."[22] A description of the Core Curriculum for the elementary, middle and high school levels for the 1992-93 academic year can be found in Table 1.4.[23] As can be seen, Utah students are expected to develop mastery of information, concepts, and skills in a wide variety of subject matters.

Table 1.4
Core Curriculum for the Utah System of Public Education, 1992-1993

Elementary Core (K-6) Subject Area	Middle Core (7-8) Subject Area	Secondary Core (8-12) Subject Area
Language Arts	Language Arts	Language Arts
Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
Science	Science	Science
The Arts	Social Studies	Computer Literacy
Healthy Life Styles	The Arts	Social Studies
Computer Literacy	Computer Literacy	The Arts
	Healthy Life Styles	Healthy Life Styles
	Vocational Education	Vocational Education
	Electives	Electives

Source: Utah State Board of Education, 1991

In conjunction with core curriculum revisions initiated in 1984, the state Board of Education likewise adopted new graduation requirements for high school seniors. As illustrated in Table 1.5, comparisons between 1984 and 1992 standards reveal increased requirements in several content areas. In addition, the number of credits required for graduation was increased from 15 to 24.

Table 1.5
Old and New Graduation Requirements for Utah Secondary Students

	Old Requirements		New Requirements	
	Grades	Grades	Grades	Grades
Content Areas	7-9	10-12	7-8	9-12
Language Arts	-	3.0	2.0	3.0
Mathematics	-	1.0	2.0	2.0
Social Studies	-	2.0	1.5	3.0
Science	-	1.0	1.5	2.0
Health	-	1.5	1.5	2.0
Arts	-	-	1.0	1.5
Vocational Education	-	-	1.0	1.0
Computer literacy	-	-	0.5	0.5
Electives	-	6.5	1.0	9.0
Total Credits	16-18[a]	15.0	12.0	24.0

a) Prior to the revisions enacted in 1987, the number and type of credit units required for grades 7-9 were determined by local districts.
Source: Utah State Office of Education, 1992.

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[22] Utah State Board of Education, Our Changing Schools. Utah State Office of Education, 1987: 5.

[23] Utah State Board of Education, 1992.

The combined effect of curriculum change in Utah has resulted in a significant change in expectations for students over the past decade. As a means of increasing the effectiveness of the system, this change has been characterized by an emphasis on increased rigor and the development of higher order thinking skills. Yet, what effect, if any, has such change had on student learning and achievement? The precise answer to this question is difficult to determine. Nevertheless, a few key indicators suggest a possible answer. The first has as its focus the percentage of high school students taking more rigorous classes. Implementation of new requirements has resulted in an increase in the percentages of students taking academic classes. Table 1.6 offers data on the percentage of high school seniors who have taken courses in the areas of math ,and science for the years 1984, 1988, and 1992 respectively. It will be noted that the percentages of students in each of the identified areas has increased since 1984. In general, most Utah students appear to be taking a more demanding program of studies in 1993 than was true in 1984.

Table 1.6
Percentage of Utah Seniors Who Have Taken Specific Math-Science Courses:
1984, 1988, 1992

Course	1984	1988	1992
Algebra I	78.7%	88.4%	86.2%
Algebra II	48.2	63.2	67.7
Advanced Algebra	-	-	38.4
Geometry	58.3	66.4	69.1
Trigonometry	24.7	33.0	37.3
Computer Literacy	28.0	43.4	61.7
Biology	-	-	86.4
Chemistry	26.7	38.0	41.2
Physics	14.2	18.8	22.1
AP Social Science	15.6	20.8	28.9
AP English	21.0	27.6	28.8
AP Calculus	10.1	13.1	13.7
AP Science	10.8	10.5	15.1

Source: Office of the Legislative Fiscal Analyst. Public Education Data Book. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah State Legislature, January 1993: 49.

A second set of indicators reflecting change in curriculum standards is perhaps found in standardized test scores. Three sets of scores are offered for consideration here. The first represents scores from the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) for grades 5 and 11. Using a stratified random sampling procedure, the Utah State Office of Education used the CTBS to assess academic progress in key areas until 1990. Standardized scores from selected years for the areas of reading and math are found in Table 1.7. Remembering that graduation requirements were revised in 1984 and the new core curriculum implemented in

1987, it will be noted that by 1990 students in 5th and 11th grades were above the national percentile in the areas of reading and math. Further, incremental gains in each area across both grades were witnessed between 1984 and 1990. Data from the Stanford Achievement, a test used by the state as the instrument of choice in its Statewide Testing Program (a full discussion of this legislation follows as a separate act of reform) reveals similar patterns for grades 5, 8, and 11. As found in Table 1.8, incremental gains in total battery scores and most subtest scores are evident in all grades between 1990 and 1992. A similar trend is evident in Utah's ACT composite average score, a test taken annually by approximately 65% of all graduating seniors across the state. This data is shown in Table 1.9. As can be seen, the composite average for the state of Utah has increased slightly since 1989 and remained above the national average. This remains true in spite of the decrease witnessed over the same period for the English battery.

Table 1.7
Utah Standardized Reading and Math Scores,[a]
Grades 5 & 11: 1978-90[1]

	Reading		Mathematics	
YEAR	Grade 5	Grade 11	Grade 5	Grade 11
1978	49[b]	59	38	42
1981	51	63	40	52
1984	53	57	48	55
1987	55	60	48	59
1990	54	61	53	59

a) Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (CTBS), comparisons made on the basis of 1988 national norms.

b) Scores are reported as percentiles with the national norm for each test being 50.

Source: David G. Fox, David E. Nelson, Robert L. Ellison, Marita L. Fairfield, & John D. Ross. Utah Statewide Educational Assessment General Report: 1975-1990. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah Office of Education, December 1990: 13f.

Table 1.8
Utah Statewide Testing Program Subtests and Total Battery Scores,[a]
1990-1992[1]

	Grade 5			Grade 8			Grade 11		
Subtest	90	91	92	90	91	92	90	91	92
Math	60[b]	62	62	53	54	55	54	59	59
Reading	53	55	53	55	55	55	58	58	61
English	48	48	48	45	45	45	45	51	51
Science	52	56	56	53	53	58	60	60	60
Soc-Science	55	55	55	50	50	54	56	56	56
TOTAL BAT	53	55	54	51	51	53	53	55	56

a) Stanford Achievement Test, 8th edition.

b) Scores are presented as percentiles, the national norm for the total battery and individual subtests is 50%.

Source: Utah State Office of Education, Statewide Testing Program, 1992.

Table 1.9
ACT Average Subtests and Composite Scores:[a]
Utah vs USA 1989-1992

	Subtests (Utah Only)			Composite	
YEAR	English	Math	Science Reasoning	Utah	USA
1989	21.4	19.7	*	20.9	20.6
1990	21.1	19.7	*	21.0	20.6
1991	20.6	19.7	21.2[b]	21.0	20.6
1992	20.7	20.0	21.4	21.1	20.6

a) The core battery of the ACT remained fairly stable until 1989. In that year the core was readjusted. As a result of this change, comparisons of composite scores before and after 1989 are neither reliable nor recommended as different constructs are being measured.

b) Subtest changed to become "Science Reasoning".

Sources: Utah State Office of Education. Utah Educational Quality Indicators. Salt Lake City, UT, 1989: 22. Office of the Legislative Fiscal Analyst. Utah Public Education Data Book. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah State Legislature, 1993: 41.

A third representative reform of the effectiveness cluster is found in the Statewide Testing Program (HB 321: 1990). Enacted by the 1990 legislature at the behest of Governor Norman Bangerter, the Statewide Testing Program (STP) was passed as a means of providing "an additional tool to plan, measure, and evaluate the effectiveness" of public education in Utah.[24] Using a standardized achievement measure, HB 321 called for annual statewide testing for grades 5, 8, and 11. Development of a statewide system for reporting STP scores was also mandated by the legislature. Passage of the School District Accountability and Performance Acts (HB 158, HB 170:1990) required local districts to provide annual performance reports charting the progress of both district and individual schools for a given year.

As of July 1993, three years of cumulative STP data were available to the public; this data is shown by subtest, grade, and year in Table 1.8. Close examination will reveal that between 1990 and 1992, achievement gains in the total battery scores have been made in all grades tested. In addition, the data suggests that since 1983 Utah students in grades 5, 8, and 11 have consistently scored at or above the national average in all subtests areas but one, Language Arts/English. While it is difficult at this point to determine the effect of mandated testing on the quality of education, it does appear that the passage of HB 321 has functioned to increase the public vulnerability of education. Annual publication of district and individual school test scores appears to have heightened the pressure on both superintendents and principals. Nevertheless, many questions remain, e.g. to what extent do principals "lead" and teachers "teach towards" the test? In spite of such questions, as a policy instrument, the STP was enacted as a means of increasing the effectiveness of public education through accountability in Utah.

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[24] Utah Democrats have made incremental yet consistent gains in both chambers since the 43rd Legislative Session (1979-80). See Utah Legislative Manual for each respective session.

A final state initiative indicative of the effectiveness reform cluster noted above is found in the Educational Technology Initiative (ETI). As passed by the 1990 Utah legislature (HB 468: 1990), ETI was initially created to improve student mastery in math, reading, and language arts through the incorporation of technology in schools.[25] Since its enactment in 1990, over $100 million from both public and private funds have been invested in Utah's effort to "modernize" and "computerize" teaching and learning.[26]

While a comprehensive assessment regarding the impact of ETI on the effectiveness of the state's school system is at this point premature, preliminary evaluations yield some data on the impact of the Initiative.[27] For example, not only are there are more computers in Utah's public schools, but teachers and students have increased their use of this technology. Since 1989 the computer-student ratio has decreased from 20-1 to 11-1 in elementary schools and 10-1 to 6-1 in secondary schools; the average elementary student spends approximately one hour per week using the computer in school, the average secondary student approximately 2.25 hours. In terms of instructional usage, initial reports indicate that Utah teachers are using technology in traditional ways. For example, over 80% of the state's elementary teachers involved in ETI use computers to instill basic skills through drill and practice. Less than 60% of this group use computers to stimulate creativity and higher order thinking.

Initially funded to improve the effectiveness of classroom teaching and learning, ETI has the added potential of increasing efficiency and promoting equity within the Utah's education system.[28] In terms of efficiency, the availability of various types of centralized, on-line data bases, microwave network services, and distance learning technologies to schools and districts across the state, has the potential for leading to the realization of significant savings of various kinds. As means of improving the availability and access of technology to poor, rural, or low achieving schools and districts, ETI has the potential of promoting equal access. At this point, however, information regarding the actual effects of these impacts is not available.

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[25] Utah Office of Education, Annual Report of the Utah State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1991-92: 28.

[26] John R. Mergendoller, Trish Stoddart, Dean Bradshaw, and Dale Niederhauser. "A Portfolio-Based Evaluation of Utah's Education Technology Initiative." Novato, CA: Beryl Buck Institute for Education, 1992: 2.10f.

[27] John R. Mergendoller, Trish Stoddart, Carolyn Horan, Dale Niederhauser, & Dean Bradshaw, "Instructional Utilization: Teacher Training and Implementation of Utah's Educational Technology Initiative in School Districts and Colleges," Novato, CA: Beryl Buck Institute for Education, 1992.

[28] Annual Report...1991-92, 1992: 28f.

Strategic Planning Reform Axis

Attempts at developing a strategic plan to chart the direction of state educational policy define the third axis of reform in Utah. Much less inclusive than the efficiency and effectiveness axes described above, the significance of the strategic planning axis lies in the influence such planning has had on the direction of reform in recent years.[29] Over the past decade, a great deal of educational strategic planning has taken place in Utah. Broadly conceived, these efforts may be viewed as attempts to improve system effectiveness and efficiency.

As an idea, strategic planning for the development of coherent educational policy appeared rather early in Utah. Sponsored by various governmental agencies, no less than five such plans have appeared since 1981.[30] Yet, as a strategy to policy-making, such an approach was not officially adopted by the legislature until 1990. In January of that year, a concurrent resolution authorized the creation of a task force to develop and monitor the progress of a five-year strategic plan for public education.[31] Two years later the Task Force for Strategic Planning presented its report (USP--Utah Strategic Plan) to the legislature. Building upon the foundation of previous planning efforts, the stated purposes of USP reflect both visionary and guidance functions...."to create a bold new vision for the future of Utah Public Education, ... "[to] convey not only a vision, but a clear path for making that vision a reality,"...and "to be a resilient and flexible guide to leaders, policy makers and administrators for aligning Public Education's structure and systems with those fundamental principles of effective leadership and management."[32]

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[29] For an examination and discussion of the influence of strategic planning reports on the progress of educational policy-making in Utah see B. L. Johnson, Jr., "Setting the Policy-Making Agenda: An Examination of the Effects of National and State Reform Reports on Enacted Legislation," forthcoming.

[30] These include the following: 1) Utah Statewide Education Planning Commission, Utah Systemwide Education Planning. Salt Lake City, Utah: Utah State Board of Education, June 1980; 2) Utah Commission on Educational Excellence, Ted Capener, Chair. Report of the Utah Commission on Educational Excellence. Salt lake City, Utah: Utah State Board of Education, October 1983; 3) Utah Education Reform Steering Committee. Education in Utah: A Call To Action. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah State Government, November 1983 4) Utah State Department of Education. A Shift in Focus. A Report by the State Department of Education's Strategic Planning Commission, 1988; 5) Education Strategic Planning Committee Task Force. Utah State Public Education Strategic Plan, 1992-1997: A Strategic Guide for the Future Development of the Public School System. Salt Lake City, Utah: Office of Legislative Fiscal Analyst, January, 1992.

[31] Utah Code Unannotated 1992, 53A-1a-202.

[32] Committee Report, Utah State Public Education Strategic Plan, 1992-1997: A Strategic Guide for the Future of Development of the Public School System, 1992: cover letter, 7.

While a comprehensive examination of the full content of USP is beyond the scope of this paper, a cursory look at the prominent themes and objectives of the Plan is in order. In an attempt to "assure [that Utahns are] the best educated citizenry in the world," the USP proposes to: redesign, as is necessary, the educational system to achieve the objectives of the Plan; promote school autonomy in meeting the objectives of the state through the decentralization of authority to local sites; align the organization of the education system with outcome-based accountability measures for local districts and schools; employ technology to improve teaching/learning; develop a world-class curriculum; develop a system of client choice; personalize education for each student; and strengthen the school-business partnership.

The USP, as developed by the Task Force on Strategic Planning for the years 1992-1997, was approved by the 1992 Utah legislature. This approval may be interpreted as a commitment to move ahead towards realization of the vision offered therein. While certain components of the Plan were in place prior to its passage, e.g., Career Ladder System, Statewide Testing Program, Educational Technology Initiative, etc., it is reasonable to assume that the Plan will serve as a general blueprint to guide the construction of future legislation. The specific degree to which this plan will guide the development of educational policy, however, has yet to be determined.

Currently, reform activity is centering around the restructuring of school governance, an important component of the Strategic Plan. Such activity defines the final axis of reform efforts in Utah.

School Governance Reform Axis

The amount of attention given to the decentralization of authority in public education serves as a justification for identifying the fourth axis of reform in Utah: the school governance reform axis. Notions of shifting the authority for operational decisions from the district to the school site have received increased attention across the state in recent years. Although the Salt Lake City District has been in the process of decentralizing its decision making processes for well over a decade, passage of the Site-Based Decision Making Pilot Program in 1991 (SB 30: 1991) represented the first official state level attempt to explore such decentralization. Funded at $800,000, the Site-Based Decision Making Pilot Program (SBDP) was designed to explore the feasibility of a site-based approach to governance. Following a careful selection process, 16 pilot schools from 11 districts were chosen to participate. Granted flexibility and exemption from certain state and local regulations, these pilot schools were encouraged to experiment in their attempts to meet predetermined academic goals. Over the three year life of the program, each of the 16 schools received $50,000 to innovate and experiment as needed.

Preliminary evaluations of SBDP have revealed some illuminating results.[33] As reported by the State Office of Education, the greatest impact of SBDM has been the sense of ownership developed for school performance among participants. On the negative side, problems in defining clear decisional domains, e.g., district level vs. site-based decision domains, have been frequently reported. In addition, start-up costs have been perceived as being "massive"--especially among teachers.

Prior to the expiration of SBDP in June 1993, a new statewide site-based program was enacted by the Utah legislature: the Centennial Schools Program (HB 100: 1993). This program is the central focus of current reform efforts in Utah. As the embodiment of Governor Mike Leavitt's educational strategy, the Centennial Schools Program (CSP) has been touted as the plan that will "move Utah's public schools to a new level of performance" and "showcase" the progress being made towards realization of the State's Strategic Plan.[34] To insure the success of its implementation, $2.6 million has been appropriated for fiscal year 1993-94 by the legislature.

Site-based empowerment and flexibility are the ideas that form the twin cornerstones of CSP. As specified by HB 100, "site-based decision making" is defined as "a joint planning and problem solving process that seeks to improve the quality of working life and education...It is a cooperative effort in which a local school group comprised of teachers, classified employees, school administrators, and parents engage in collaborative decision making at the school level on matters critical to the achievement of school goals as established by the group."[35] As delineated by CSP, the site-based board created in all Centennial schools will be given the autonomy and flexibility to determine the strategy to be pursed toward the realization of pre-determined student outcomes. Such site-based boards will also be accountable for the outcomes that emerge at the school.

Under the direction guidelines provided by the Utah State Office of Education, all public schools are invited to participate in the program on a voluntary basis. Funds are available to support up to approximately 200 schools. If selected as a CSP participant, a given school will receive a base allocation of $5,000, plus $20 per student--monies above and beyond all Minimum School Program appropriations.

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[33] Utah State Office of Education, Project Assistance Services. Utah's Educational Reform Programs. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah State Office of Education, 1993: 159f.

[34] Utah Centennial Schools. "Shape the Future!" Salt Lake City, Utah: Utah State Office of Education, 1993.

[35] Utah Code Unannotated 1992, 53A-1a-301.

As of July 1993, CSP is in the initial stages of implementation. Applications for participation in CSP are currently under review by the Governor and State Board of Education.[36] Data concerning the success of CSP is at this point nil. Nevertheless, the program is perhaps indicative of the direction of current and future reform in Utah. When coupled with Site-Based Decision Making Pilot Program of 1991, the Centennial Schools Program of 1993 reflects the spirit of many of the ideas expressed in the State's Strategic Plan for Education, a plan slated to guide educational policy-making efforts in Utah for the immediate future.

Taken together, these four axes--efficiency, effectiveness, strategic planning, and school governance--define the dominant contours of educational reform in Utah since 1983. A pictorial representation of these axes complete with those representative reforms identified and discussed above is offered in Figure 2. As can be seen, the contributions of both the strategic planning and school governance axes to the more inclusive efficiency and effectiveness reform axes are duly noted.

Figure 2
Axes / Cluster-Patterns of Educational Change in Utah
With Representative Reforms, 1983-1994

|<-- **A3: Strategic Planning** -->|

-Utah Statewide Education Planning Commission, 1981
-Utah Commission on Educational Excellence, 1983
-Utah Education Reform Steering Committee, 1983
-Strategic Planning Commission, 1988
-Strategic Planning Initiative, 1990

A1: EFFICIENCY
- Public School Reform Act, 1984
- Year-Round School/Efficient Facility Use Program, 1985-86
- State Testing Program, 1990

A2: EFFECTIVENESS
- Career Ladder System, 1984
- Revised Core Curriculum & Standards, 1987
- Ed Tech. Initiative, 1990

|<-- **A4: School Governance** -->|

-Site-Based Management Pilot Study, 1991
-Centennial Schools Program, 1993

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[36] Since the writing of this chapter in August of 1993, several schools are moving towards completion of a full academic year as Centennial Schools. The 1994 Utah Legislature has authorized expansion of: 1) the number of schools that can qualify for participation in the CSP; and 2) the revenues available for the program.

A Critique of Reform in Utah

The reform initiatives which have emerged in Utah are in many ways consistent with and reflective of the ferment which has characterized American education since 1983. Placing these initiatives within a national context provides an initial point of departure for a critique of reform in the state. To be sure, the call for change at the national level has been mirrored in Utah by numerous state-level commissions, committees, publications and reports. Much like the reports which have appeared at the national level, rhetoric and symbolism have been used to define the nature of this call for the citizens of Utah. The use of hyperbole at the national level to describe the state of American education, i.e. as a fragile, archaic, inept and disorganized institution on the edge of chaos and dissolution has been witnessed in Utah--though to a lesser degree--as an issue-expansion strategy. The state's high pupil-teacher ratios and low per pupil expenditures have provided ready fodder for would-be policy entrepreneurs. Among other things, such efforts have functioned to define the education agenda for the state, heighten the public's awareness of education as an issue, and mobilize support for and against various educational proposals.

A second similarity between Utah and other states is found in the motor driving reform. In Utah, the push for reform in is driven primarily by economic motives and interests; educational reform is perceived as an important means of economic development. As developmental policy, educational reform is expected to yield benefits that will protect the state's fiscal resources and expand its economic base. The reform which has emerged has been primarily defined as an important means of attracting advanced technology and venture capital. As a means of augmenting Utah's competitiveness in an increasingly global economy, reform has also been defined as the means of meeting the demands of the work force of the future. Thus, in Utah, as in other states, reform has been perceived as a capacity-building investment driven by economic concerns.

The attention given to policies of effectiveness and efficiency by policy-makers represents a third similarity between reform efforts in Utah and other states. Consistent with the national trend and fueled by the state's pressing enrollment problems, the overwhelming majority of policies that have appeared since 1983 address the effectiveness and efficiency of the Utah's system of public education: doing more for less. Such policies are indicative of the national move towards a more rationalized, accountable system of public education. In Utah, strategic planning and school governance reforms are to be viewed as means to achieving these ends. To the extent that it facilitates the alignment of system action with system outcomes and reduces uncertainty, strategic planning represents an attempt to enhance effectiveness and efficiency. Likewise, to the extent that it facilitates or empowers local districts and schools to achieve specific goals in an efficient manner, site-based management represents an attempt to enhance system effectiveness and efficiency. Concerns with effectiveness and efficiency have dominated reform in Utah.

Conspicuously absent from the characterization of reform portrayed above (see Figure 2) are patterns of redistributive policy--policies concerned with equity. The pressure exerted on the political system by the unique constellation of contextual forces found in the state account for this absence. While the reform that has occurred in many ways reflects the activity witnessed across the US, it is this unique mix of contextual forces which distinguishes Utah from other states. Identified earlier as the major "contours" of educational policy-making, these contours produce both complementary and countervailing demands on the state's political system. Inasmuch as these forces are complementary, the probability of more coherent educational policy by the system is increased. However, the existence of countervailing forces suggests an increase of turbulence within this system. Consider the following countervailing demands which have emerged in recent years:

1. **zero to moderate revenue growth vs booming enrollments** - Moderate revenue growth in Utah has resulted in incremental increases to education--not enough, however, to meet the demands created by extraordinary enrollment growth.
2. **demand for educational quality vs revenue scarcity** - As a result of the value afforded education by Utahns, demands for increased quality have met with the challenges presented by the limited availability of resources to meet such demands.
3. **demand for increased revenue vs minimalist tax mood** - The need for increased funds to address the demands created by rising enrollments and demands for quality have arisen in a state known for its fiscal conservatism.

Taken together, it is these countervailing forces which account for the increased pressure witnessed within the state's political system. Evoking concerns for effectiveness and efficiency, such forces continue to define the character of educational policy-making in Utah. These tensions explain the current political realities found in Utah's educational system: high pupil-teacher ratio, low per pupil expenditures, resource scarcity, etc. All are by-products of Utah's primary conundrum: too many students, too few resources.

Given this scenario, Utah policy-makers have and will continue to face difficult choices. In an effort to resolve this dilemma, a variety of solutions, each with its own set of political implications, exists: 1) inaction; 2) a reduction in public school enrollments; 3) increasing allocations to public education at the expense of other public service programs, i.e. reallocation; 4) seeking improvements in the efficiency and effectiveness of the current system; 5) increasing revenue for education via taxation; or 6) seeking novel or radical approaches to restructuring public education. Of these approaches, only four would appear to be realistic." The first two, inaction and reducing student enrollments, do not represent viable alternatives. Ignoring existing conditions will only serve to increase system stress to an inordinate level; other than encouraging citizens to choose the private school option, little can be done at the state level to reduce enrollments. The third alternative likewise yields itself to the increase of stress within the political system. Public education is one among many services supported by state government. Allocations made to public education are necessarily made at the expense of other important public services. As a retrenchment strategy, reallocation decisions place policy-makers squarely between competing demands, an uncomfortable position often accompanied with high political stakes.

The fourth alternative represents the traditional course of action chosen by policy-makers in the state. As has been consistently argued, concerns for effectiveness and efficiency have defined educational reform in Utah, particularly since 1983. Nevertheless, limits to such pursuits do exist; only so much blood can be let from the proverbial turnip. While it is sensed that these limits have yet to be reached in Utah, such limits are much closer today than in 1983. In addition, enrollments are projected to increase well into the 90s, offering little relief for an increasingly taxed system.

Talk of increases in system stress naturally leads to a consideration of the fifth alternative: the raising of taxes. As is the case elsewhere, public education absorbs the lion's share of state expenditures. Since 1982, such expenditures have ranged from 47.1% to 49.1% of total state expenditures.[37] For fiscal year 1992, 48.5% of state funds were spent on public education. When combined with higher education, this percentage increased to 66.1%. Among the many arguments made against raising taxes for education, three are frequently heard: 1) the proportion of children to tax-paying adults is rather large; 2) Utah is a relatively poor state; and 3) the tax effort by Utah citizens is inordinately high.

While the first argument is, in fact, true, the validity of the remaining two proves a bit more equivocal. For the year 1991, the household income in Utah was at $46,464, slightly above the national average of $45,854 and third among the Mountain States.[38] In addition, this income was earned in an economy which enjoys a cost of living below the national average. When further coupled with the fact that the state enjoys one of the lowest poverty rates in the country, it can be concluded that Utah is not a poor state.

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[37] This includes both General and Uniform School Funds, see Public Education Data Book, 1993: 29.

[38] Utah Foundation, "Research Briefs", Salt Lake City, UT: Utah Foundation 92-93 (August 10, 1992).

Table 1.10
Combined State and Local Tax Burden, 1979-1993: Utah vs USA

	$ Per Capita			$ Per Household			$ Per $1000 Income		
YEAR	Utah	USA	Rank[a]	Utah	USA	Rank	Utah	USA	Rank
79-80	840	-	33rd	-	-	-	125	116	13th
79-80	840	-	33rd	-	-	-	125	116	13th
80-81	912	-	35	-	-	-	119	-	12
81-82	1,011	1,175	35	-	-	-	117	111	14
82-83	963	1,216	39	-	-	-	113	111	17
83-84	1,133	1,356	34	-	-	-	129	117	10
84-85	1,258	1,465	34	-	-	-	129	116	9
85-86	1,292	1,547	32	4,184	4,201	16th	125	113	8
86-87	1,360	1,665	35	4,409	4,500	17	125	115	9
87-88	1,460	1,772	37	4,708	4,760	19	129	116	10
88-89	1,498	1,889	38	4,789	5,045	22	124	116	11
89-90	1,582	2,016	37	5,076	5,454	21	122	115	13

a) Comparative rank among the 50 States.

Source: Utah Taxpayers Association. "How Utah Compares: State and Local Taxes." Salt Lake City, UT: Annual Reports, 1976-1992.

The data presented in Table 1.10 provides information regarding tax effort in Utah. Here, data on the combined state and local tax burden for the years 1979-80 to 1989-90 are found. As can be seen, the per capita tax burden in Utah is less than in most states. However, since such a statistic masks the effects provided by a disproportionate number of citizens below the age of 18, two other statistics are provided. In terms of combined burden per household, the amount of taxes paid annually by Utahns for the fiscal year 1989-90 was more than that paid in 29 other states. Data regarding the combined burden per $1,000 of income places Utah higher than more than 2/3 of the 50 states. Although conclusions regarding the fiscal capacity and effort of a state are difficult to determine with precision, these data suggest that while the tax burden for Utahns is above the national average, it does not appear to be inordinately so.

The final policy alternative--seeking novel or radical approaches to restructuring public education--challenges traditional ways of thinking about the way education is delivered. Much of the talk of restructuring centers around criticisms of the current "technology" of education. Within this context, technology may be understood as the sum total of ways that a given task is done. Implied in such a definition are notions of mental and technical know-how. Recent pressures on Utah's system of public education have moved policy makers within the state towards a rethinking of the current public education delivery system. Such movement has found expression in the Educational Technology Initiative (ETI) passed by the 1990 Legislature and discussed above. ETI is up for renewed funding during the upcoming 1994 Legislative Session. At present, Utah's Governor is seeking to use its renewal as an opportunity to redefine ETI as that point of leverage by which substantive restructuring of the state's system of public education can by achieved.[39] Whether this can be realized, however, remains to be seen. Nevertheless, it represents an alternative available to policy makers in the state.

CONCLUSION

Designing and implementing "coherent" education policy would appear to be a growing concern among educational policy makers (Fuhrman, 1993). As derived from the Latin cohaerere, the adjective "coherent" is used to describe the relationship which exists between two or more entities. In a literal sense, to be "coherent" means to "stick together." Implied in such a bond are notions of logical consistency and compatibility. To the degree that such consistency and compatibility exist, two or more entities prove "coherent." When used in the context of policy and policy-making, "coherence" refers to the consistency and/or compatibility of two or more policies. Such a statement naturally raises questions regarding the focus or subject of this consistency and compatibility. The data provided by this review of reform in Utah hint at such foci. When speaking of policy coherency at the more general level, the character of reform in Utah, as it has emerged over the past decade, reflects a degree of coherency. As noted above, this coherency is found in the primary values reflected among the major policies enacted since 1983, namely effectiveness and efficiency.

On the basis of the known intent and outcomes of reform policies enacted in the Utah since 1983, "coherency" may be used to describe the relationships which exist between these policies. Such relationships can be examined at one of two levels. At a more general level, a policy matrix, i.e. a cluster of policies which exit in a given policy domain, may be described as coherent if, in fact, a common tenor or set of values is reflected among those policies. At a more specific level, however, a policy matrix may be described as coherent to the degree that the specific details of each policy within a given policy domain--when implemented--mutually support or hinder the realization of other policies within that same domain. When speaking of policy coherency at the "specific level," however, achieving and determining such coherency is much more problematic and uncertain. The fragmented nature of the political system and the policy making process make the realization of such coherency quite difficult (Lindblom, 1959). The policies associated with educational reform in Utah since 1983 reflect to a lesser degree this type of coherency.

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[39] See "Gearing Up With Technology," a speech delivered to the state by Governor Michael Leavitt in the Summer of 1993.

Considering enrollment and funding levels, the state of Utah has historically enjoyed a *respectable return* on its investment in public education. Educational attainment and achievement in the state hover at or above the national level along a variety of indices. However, given the conditions and political realities described above, it may be concluded that policy-makers will continue to face a number of critical issues and decisions in public education. This remains true in spite of the effectiveness-efficiency policies which have defined reform in the state since 1983. The problems will not resolve themselves. Tough choices and possible sacrifice lay ahead. The decisions made by policy-makers today will indeed have consequences for the quality of education found in Utah tomorrow.

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CHAPTER TWO

SURVIVING THE WAVES OF CURRICULAR REFORM IN UTAH

By: Carolyn M. Shields & Karen V. Berner

During the last decade, numerous educational reform initiatives have been proposed in Utah. Many of these reform initiatives began at the legislative level or at the State Office of Education; others were proposed by districts and individual schools.

This chapter will focus on statewide reform that relates to issues of curriculum and instruction. The first part of the chapter will present an overview of recent legislation and program initiatives. From this overview, four major themes are identified and discussed. The second section will discuss three major implications of the reform efforts and their potential for having the anticipated positive impact on teaching and learning in Utah's K-12 classrooms. Finally, some additional questions will be posed to help guide the reflections of educators and policy makers as they strive to create a "world class curriculum" for Utah students.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Two waves of reform have influenced curriculum and instruction in Utah in the past decade:

  a) a wave of accountability and control, and

  b) a wave of flexibility and local initiative.

- Utah's educational mission has most recently been expressed in the Strategic Planning Act for Educational Excellence (Utah Code: 53a-1a-103, 1992): "to assure the best educated citizenry in the world" ... through a "world class curriculum." The Utah Core Curriculum and Centennial Schools provide two possible contexts for such world class reform.
- Certain issues of the reform movement, evident in legislation and program initiatives, require careful reflection, discourse, and articulation of:

  a) the substantive image of our vision and mission including possible models of world class curriculum and instruction,

  b) how technology can improve teaching and learning,

  c) the inclusion of parents in decision-making,

  d) the nature of appropriate educational partnerships with business and community agencies,

  e) the role of in-service and professional development activities for teachers, administrators, and others involved in the widening educational decision-making community.

- In the absence of clearer policy guidelines, educators and particularly site-based administrators are feeling pressure from too many different directions. Their efforts are fragmented, and they are struggling to avoid being "drowned" by the waves of reform. The waves must be calmed; a period of clarity and policy stability is essential if educators are to be empowered to improve teaching and learning in Utah.

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To gather information concerning the nature and extent of educational reform in Utah, personal interviews were conducted with educational leaders at the State Office of Education. Careful examination was made of recent Utah legislation as well as of documents related to curriculum reform published by the State Office of Education.

TWO "WAVES OF REFORM" INITIATIVES

Utah's educational reform initiatives, although unique in some ways, are also consistent with the two dominant national movements described by some educational researchers as "waves of reform" washing over the educational scene (Smylie & Denny, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 1988). The first of these waves, begun in the early 1980's, emphasized standardization and control of curriculum while the second wave introduced reforms that were associated with flexibility and local initiative.

Like many other state and national reform efforts, Utah has attempted to incorporate elements of both waves into current educational change. Many of Utah's programs and legislative initiatives emphasize local autonomy. Many are also consistent with and supportive of the national goals of education established by the nation's governors. In 1989, at a national education summit, the governors agreed upon the establishment of six national goals of education[1] as well as a system for monitoring national progress towards achieving these goals. Utah's response has been to highlight and emphasize programs already in place as well as to implement a number of new programs. These new initiatives will be the focus of this chapter.

The First Wave of Reform

Since 1983, the same year in which a number of significant national reports were published including A Nation at Risk and A Place Called School, vigorous and diverse efforts have been made to improve American schools. Likewise, in Utah, where the education system has been perceived as good, (based on student performance statistics), individuals and groups across the state have proposed initiatives to promote an even better "world class curriculum."

A Shift in Focus, (1988), the initial report of the Utah State Board of Education Strategic Planning Commission, summarized many of these reforms: which were the new "State Core Curriculum, more vigorous Graduation Requirements, increased Instructional Productivity, a statewide Career Ladder System, a Principals' Academy to strengthen instruction/curriculum management" (p.1), an Outcome-Based Education program, and numerous other programs. The major purpose of these initiatives, similar to other national efforts, was to "improve the quality and effectiveness of teaching through regulation and prescription" (Smylie & Denny, 1990, p.235).

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[1] The following areas are covered by the National Education Goals: readiness for school; high school completion; student achievement and citizenship; achievement in mathematics and science; adult literacy and lifelong learning; safe, disciplined, and drug-free schools.

These reforms had a dual focus: increased uniformity in terms of the educational experiences of students and improved accountability on the part of teachers and administrators. Standardization and control of curriculum, new graduation requirements, and an increased emphasis on teacher leadership were introduced as part of this first wave of reform. Some of these--the development and implementation of the State Core Curriculum, the Core Assessment Program, and the adoption of the Statewide Testing Program--were discussed in the 1992-93 Conditions of Education in Utah.

The Second Wave of Reform

The second national wave of educational reform included initiatives related to recognizing local autonomy and expertise and to increasing both the flexibility and accountability of the educational system. Reforms associated with this wave are attentive to local contexts, needs, expertise, and decision-making processes in schools. Utah's second wave reform efforts will be discussed in the context of reform initiatives emanating from the State Office of Education and from recent legislation in which the state educational mission statement is defined.

Utah's Educational Mission

The most significant legislation in this decade with the potential to directly influence classroom activity in Utah schools was the passing of the "Utah Strategic Planning Act for Educational Excellence" in 1992. This legislative act became sections 53A-1a-101 to 53A-1a-109 of the Utah Code. Four years earlier, the report of the Strategic Planning Commission, A Shift in Focus (1988), had laid the groundwork for dramatic changes in Utah's conception of education. In this report, the mission of public education was defined in "business language" (p.4). The Commission began by asking a number of key questions: Who are the "customer" and the "consumer?" Who pays for education? For whose purpose is it conducted? Based on their answers to these questions, they developed the following mission statement:

> The MISSION of Public Education is to empower each student to function effectively in society as a competent, productive, caring, and responsible citizen (p.4).

The following year, in 1989, the Department of Community and Economic Development published The Governor's Blueprint for Utah's Economic Future. This document identified education as a key to achieving the mission of economic development in Utah. A sense of interdependency is clearly noted: "Education programs should be reviewed and revised as appropriate to assure that they are competency based and responsive to ever--changing market characteristics." (p.7).

The Strategic Planning Act for Educational Excellence, (1992, 53A-1a-103 of the Utah Code) incorporates a new and expanded educational mission statement into the State Code (section 53A-1a-103). The legislation reads (in part):

> Public education's mission is to assure Utah the best educated citizenry in the world and each individual the training to succeed in a global society, by providing students with learning and occupational skills, character development, literacy, and basic knowledge through a responsive educational system that guarantees local school communities autonomy, flexibility, and client choice, while holding them accountable for results.

This educational mission statement, phrased in competitive terms, affirms a desire to create the best educated citizenry in the world and to provide students with opportunities to learn, and equip them with skills enabling them to successfully compete in a global society. This emphasis on guaranteed local school-community autonomy clearly situates Utah reform strategies in the center of a second wave of reform similar to that of the national level.

State Office Initiatives

Because the intent of this chapter is to clarify reform initiatives which might have a direct impact on school programs and the educational experiences of students, the first initiatives examined were those related to personnel at the State Office of Education. Information was gathered by interviewing leaders from the Instructional Services Department, identified by the organizational chart of the State Office of Education, to determine how the initiatives of the State Office of Education furthered the intent of the legislation described in the previous paragraphs.

State Office personnel expressed support and commitment for both the State Core Curriculum Initiatives and the Strategic Planning Initiative. The Strategic Plan for Educational Excellence is seen by personnel from the State Office of Education as the legislative key to promote change in the curriculum in Utah's schools; to involve parents, business, and the wider community in the process of education; and to permit flexibility and choice. At the same time it holds schools and school districts accountable for the successful progress of all students.

The passing of the Utah Strategic Planning Act for Educational Excellence both enhances public awareness of educational issues and provides a context within which to improve the standards of education throughout Utah. The act specifies as its goal to ensure "Utah the best educated citizenry in the world." This has been captured by the concept often used by educators at the State Office Personnel of Education, as "world class curriculum." They emphasized that development of a world class curriculum would be the foundation to ensure that all students leave school with the skills necessary to compete in a global society.

An integral part of this movement to a world class curriculum involves the identification of what students should "look like" when they leave school and the determination of the broad outline of appropriate student outcomes and performance standards. Bonnie Morgan, State Director of Curriculum and Instruction, believes that changes will be made from a total emphasis on learning course content and acquisition of factual knowledge to a more balanced concept in which the processes of learning and the creation of relevant products are also emphasized. This new focus will have to be incorporated into subsequent revisions of Utah's Core Curriculum. Despite the need for further revision, the development and implementation of the present Core Curriculum is seen by many educators at the State Office of Education as one of the major educational events of the past decade.

The Utah Centennial Schools initiative is described by some state office personnel as the embodiment of the strategic plan. Enacted into law in 1993, House Bill 100 provides funding and invites applications from individual schools who wish to achieve systemic change as evidenced by specified features. Such schools are required to demonstrate that they have a program which will integrate technology into their curriculum, instruction, and student assessment; that they have engaged in a strategic planning process; and that they have clearly articulated performance goals for students. Centennial Schools must also demonstrate their established strategies to involve business, industry, and perhaps other agencies, through partnerships and collaborative efforts. In addition, they agree to provide for parental involvement in the development of a personalized student education (occupation) plan. Finally, the school program must be designed to include both the basics and higher learning skills, optimum use of student time, and new instructional designs such as integrated studies or open schedules. As they fulfill their legislative mandate, Centennial Schools appear to have the potential to provide exemplary models of innovation both in curriculum and in practices of student assessment.

Educators at the State Office of Education also identify as important other types of curricular initiatives not directly addressed in the strategic plan. The Nine District Consortium, Site-Based Decision Making pilot programs, Incentives for Excellence, the Utah Public Education Foundation, the Experimental and Developmental Program, Year

Round School, and Effective Facility Use Programs are examples of these related initiatives.

Steve Kukic, Director of Services for At-Risk Students, provides strong leadership for collaborative initiatives with other State Office of Education personnel and programs as well as with outside agencies. He focuses his efforts on a growing concern for Utah educators: the 47 percent of Utah students identified as the "at-risk population." Many of these students are from the increasingly large proportion of students from ethnic minority groups; others are identified as a result of specific social or personal problems. To provide for the needs of at-risk students, as well as to address issues of equity, programs have been developed and expert assistance has been made available related to such topics as homelessness, abuse, global education, limited English proficiency and bilingual education, multi-cultural issues, and appropriate curriculum and assessment for all children. A multi-cultural artists' bank has been established to help teach cultural values, and additional programs have been implemented (e.g. Minority Engineering and Science Achievement, MESA, and the Minority Engineering Program, MEP).

Programs such as Early Intervention for Ensuring Student Success, The Utah Center for Families in Education, and the Utah Character Education Consortium are examples of additional programs designed to provide assistance, leadership, and support for the needs of students and teachers.

Technology is perceived as a potentially powerful tool for curriculum reform and support. Leadership and services are provided to schools through the Applied Technology Education Services department and via coordination of Educational Technology Initiative (ETI) funding and support. New uses of technology provide a means of linking people who have good working models of curriculum (Horyna, State Coordinator of Strategic Planning), of delivering curriculum and in-service (Morgan, State Director of Curriculum and Instruction), of managing alternative assessment procedures (Nelson, State Director of Evaluation and Assessment), and of linking classrooms to Internet (Peterson, State Associate Superintendent of Instructional Services). In fact, although educators are unanimous in stating that the promise of technology has not yet been realized, they assert that it offers the "potential of creating something really good" (Peterson).

In summary, the educators at the State Office of Education level are convinced that Utah is on the threshold of making great gains in education. The combined effect of the initiatives should be to increase the preparedness of Utah's students as they strive for a world class education which will permit them to compete successfully in a global economy.

FOUR MAJOR THEMES

From the preceding examination of initiatives emanating both from the Utah legislature and from the State Office of Education, four unifying and persistent themes of Utah's second wave reform have been identified. These themes emphasize the need for individual school flexibility and autonomy and include: 1) the importance of identifying both mission and vision; 2) the role of technology; 3) the involvement of parents, and 4) educational partnerships including the relationship between education and business.

I. A Changing Focus: Mission and Vision

To this point recent reform initiatives designed to have an impact on the curricular program offered in schools have been identified and summarized. The discussion has demonstrated that the legislative changes and new programs described as "first wave" programs may have a **direct** impact on students. These are the programs requiring additional graduation requirements, an outcome-based approach to teaching, and increased accountability in terms of the mandated statewide testing program. In particular, the introduction of the Core Curriculum and the increasing use of the accompanying end-of-unit and end-of-grade tests, has produced more standardization of curriculum throughout the state.

However, the reform initiatives which have been identified as "second wave" seem likely to have only an **indirect** impact on the educational experiences of students. A large number of pilot programs and experimental initiatives have been identified. At first glance, all seem to promise change which will lead to the accomplishment of the mission of Utah public education. Yet, despite the myriad of programs and initiatives, the real goal remains nebulous. What would a "world class" education system actually look like? In what ways would Utah's students be different if they were the best educated citizens of the world? What programs, curricula, and instructional strategies might enable such changes? What changes would be required at organizational and structural levels to facilitate the realization of such a vision? Specific details linking the answers to these questions with current reform initiatives have not yet been clearly articulated. At present, although Utah has identified a clear educational mission; there is little evidence that this has been accompanied by clarification of the vision in the minds of educators: what does this actually mean for instructional programs or teaching and learning strategies in Utah's schools?

The need for clarity of vision has been so often stated in both business and education that it has almost become a cliché. Yet, typically, vision has often been articulated by a few people "at the top," expressed in legislation, district policy, or local school mission statements and then forgotten amidst the day-to-day pressures of the job. Teachers, when asked about the mission statement of their particular school or district, are more likely to search for a written version, than to be able to speak knowledgeably about it.

Across the nation, a number of organizational experts have been urging a deeper understanding of the role of vision. Bennis, a well-known author on leadership has stated that a compelling vision is more than being goal-directed. He states that "along with the vision, the compelling goal, is the importance of the metaphor that embodies and implements the vision" (Bennis, 1989, p.6). If the vision of a world class curriculum is to become reality, clearer articulation of what that means for Utah administrators, teachers, and students will need to guide all of our efforts at educational reform. Peter Senge (1990) in his widely cited and popular book, The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization, also demonstrates the importance of combining a clearly understood mission statement with a carefully defined and unifying framework--one within which member groups and organizations have freedom to find their unique ways of working to achieve the shared goal.

As a result of the passing of the Strategic Planning Act, Utah has taken the first step of identifying its mission. Development of a more concrete and detailed shared vision will help to ensure the accomplishment of the mission.

II. An Increasing Emphasis: Utilization of Technology

In addition to the desire for local autonomy and initiative, an emphasis on technology may be found throughout the reform efforts. For example, the last of the six goals found under the mission statement of A Shift in Focus, is to "increase learning and productivity through technology."

Although not originally intended as a major emphasis of the Utah Partnership for Educational and Economic Development, the **Educational Technology Initiative (ETI)** is now considered a major area of focus for the partnership. Since 1989, "the Legislature has appropriated $49.8 million dollars to place the technological tools necessary to improve the teaching and learning process in mathematics, reading, language arts, and science," additional funds raised have far surpassed the legally required matching amounts (Utah perspective..., 1993, p.17).

Governor Leavitt's educational agenda accords technology a central role. In a speech delivered April 14, 1993, entitled "Gearing up with Technology," he praised the present capacity of the Ednet system while describing a vision of a system not limited to Ednet sites but rather an information network which literally reaches every home. The challenge presented by Governor Leavitt was to celebrate Utah's Centennial year "having made dramatic progress in technology delivered education."

The most specific directives concerning technology are found in the Utah Code. Section 53A-1a-104(6) specifies that "an information retrieval system" be implemented to provide "students, parents, and educators with reliable, useful, and timely data on the progress of each student." The statement in paragraph (9) of the same section is much broader and less specific: use "technology to improve teaching and learning process...". Further, section 53A-1a-106 authorizes each school district and public school to develop and implement programs integrating technology into the curriculum, instruction, and student assessment. The implication is that the installation and use of technology both for management and instructional purposes will result in dramatic improvements in the educational experiences and the academic achievement of Utah's students.

Yet, there has been little substantive discussion of which instructional goals might be best achieved by using technology and of how that might be accomplished. Despite the recognition that technology is a tool which will not replace the human teacher, technical specifications regarding the use of the tool for educational purposes are minimal. Questions regarding the appropriate uses of new technologies in the classroom and their relationships to existing teaching and learning practice are unresolved. If the potential of new technological tools to transform teaching and learning is to be realized, new understandings of the contributions, limitations, and ethical use of these tools will need to develop.

Utah has made significant advances in the installation and use of educational technology in schools. However, there is a strong need for evaluation and subsequent dissemination of those initiatives that best support the mission of the Strategic Planning Act, to ensure "each individual the training to succeed in a global society." A continuing challenge for educators is to ensure that installation of technological innovations is not seen as the successful completion of an end in itself. Rather, a clear sense of the desired pedagogical benefits and research-based knowledge of how to achieve them should be an integral part of any decisions concerning the installation and choice of technological applications in schools.

III. A Growing Community: Inclusion of Parents

A major dimension of second wave reform initiatives, both nationally and in Utah, has been the desire to develop programs which adequately address the needs of specific student populations. This desire has been accompanied by a belief that a number of groups (the literature often refers to "voices") which have not previously had the opportunity for input, should bring their expertise to educational decision-making processes. One of the important new directions identified throughout the Utah reform initiatives of the last five years is the emphasis on involving parents in the education of their children. The value of this involvement is clearly supported by educational research. Renihan (1990), for example, reports that the single most important factor in promoting student success at school has been found to be parental involvement with the school. Researchers have also found that, even where parental involvement is encouraged by policy, too often participation has been more symbolic than central to student learning activities (Hargreaves, 1991, p. 13).

In this instance, Utah seems to be on the forefront of involving parents in meaningful ways-- and in finding ways to improve communication between the school and the home. The programs provided by the Utah Center for Families in Education help to empower parents by providing easy access to important information and opportunities for involvement concerning their children's education. Inclusion of parents in such new structures as school councils is not, however, a panacea. Hargreaves (1991) has written about the conflicts in many educational reform movements between vision and voice. The potential is high, he suggests, not only for wiser and better solutions, but for "chaotic babble" (p.13).

There is no doubt that parents have too long been silent in the education system. Another challenge, for educators and policy makers alike, is to listen carefully to all of their ideas, values, and opinions. Then, from the diverse "voices" of school administrators, teachers, parents, and students, the difficult task will be to develop a unified and collaborative approach to achieving the vision of enhanced student learning.

IV. An Expanding Role: Developing New Educational Partnerships

Woven throughout A Shift in Focus, the Governor's Blueprint, the reform legislation, and specific program initiatives is an emphasis on school-community partnerships as a means to achieve excellence in Utah education. These varied partnerships may include partnerships between schools and businesses, between schools and other community agencies, as well as collaborative arrangements among schools. However, there seem to be no clear guidelines for establishing partnerships or specific objectives indicating what such relationships are intended to accomplish. The Utah Code, section 53A-1a-106(g) encourages the establishment of partnerships with the business community at the district and school level. Schools wishing to be considered for additional funding as a designated Centennial School must describe in their application their "strategies to involve business and industry in the school." Intuitively, the emphasis is a positive one. Yet, basic questions remain unanswered: what are these partnerships intended to accomplish that traditional models of schooling have failed to do? In what ways might such partnerships change the educational experiences of children and youth in Utah's public schools? The state's goal to become the world educational standard of curriculum excellence is both ambitious and very specific. However, links between the creation of partnerships and the achievement of this goal appear tenuous.

The policy language which establishes school-business partnerships explicitly suggests an approach to education which is shaped by corporate concerns. Children are to be "products." Education should "produce" more "scientists, engineers, mathematicians, and computer specialists." It is unlikely that anyone would disagree with the appropriateness of expecting Utah's students to be prepared to become productive and self-supporting citizens. But the unaddressed question is whether this is sufficient. While such goals do not distort the role of education, they do seem to restrict what is seen as appropriate for schools to accomplish (Hargreaves, 1991, p.6).

The educational mission expressed in A Shift in Focus made explicit the need for competent, productive, caring, and responsible citizens. The new articulation of the mission of Utah education (cited previously in its entirety) focuses much more narrowly on competition, on being "the best" and on achieving "success" in a global society "by providing students with . . . character development." The language is somewhat unusual. Character development has become one of the things which we "provide" for students as they achieve the desired result. Yet most would agree that character develops through mentoring, modeling, and encouraging; it cannot truly be "provided." Perhaps new partnership agreements will provide a forum within which such modeling and encouragement may more easily occur.

Educators and policy-makers will need to determine how to increase the competency of Utah's students (in terms of learning and occupational skills) without, at the same time, losing sight of a curriculum which would enable their development as well-rounded, thoughtful, caring, ethical, and responsible human beings. None of these are qualities which can produced, manufactured, or provided on demand. Further, consideration might be given to ways in which the education system might be redesigned in order to permit students to develop such attributes for themselves.

INTEGRATING THE THEMES

The increasing emphasis on technology, the very strong movement towards the inclusion of parents, and the development of school-based partnerships are all strong components of Utah's policy environment. While a mission to develop and implement "a world class curriculum" exists, there is still a lack of clarity or vision concerning what exactly is needed to meet these goals. Also identified is a shift in power and governance from hierarchical and bureaucratic decision-making and problem-solving to a more inclusive and collaborative approach, often using teams or site-based councils.

These second wave reform initiatives should enable educators to be responsive to increased societal diversity; thus, these changes may be seen as particularly positive ones. Hargreaves (1991, p.15) suggests that one of the reasons for the failure of so much educational reform over the years has been our quest for the one single best model of educational excellence. This quest has led to the successive identification and temporary implementation of numerous reforms, each touted as the possible panacea for education's perceived failures.

Thus, one important implication of these reform initiatives is that there is no one best model; rather, educators and policy-makers must encourage and develop multiple models of educational excellence and success. In addition, it is critical to clarify the ways in which these four themes fit together to support the development and implementation of a world class curriculum. If fragmentation is to be replaced with a unified and holistic approach to education, the implications of the current reform initiatives should be examined carefully; efforts to develop, identify, and implement models which exemplify successful teaching and learning will need to be supported.

IMPLICATIONS AND REFLECTION: WHAT WILL THIS MEAN FOR SCHOOLS?

The cumulative effect of recent legislation and program innovation seems overwhelming in its demands for change at the local school level. In addition, because the initiatives originate in a variety of different places, there is little sense of how the total package of legislation and State Office of Education initiatives fits together. Thus, the present wave of reform has important implications for Utah policy-makers and educators. These implications relate specifically to clarity of vision or focus, to the impact of the reforms on school administrators, and to the preparation of educators to implement changes which reach the teaching and learning core of schools.

Clarifying the Vision

The mission statement included in the Utah Strategic Planning Act for Educational Excellence passed in 1992 makes explicit the lofty ideal for Utah education to be "the world class standard." Yet, as discussed, the number of individual reform programs and initiatives and the conflicting demands of first and second wave reform programs of the last decade may result in Utah school-based educators being the "busiest educators in the world." No clear path has been identified for reform activities to have the desired impact on the educational experience of all Utah students or on their progress towards becoming the "best educated citizenry in the world."

Conley, in a 1993 study of strategic planning efforts occurring in 25 states, analyzed the mission statement keywords, the core beliefs, parameters, objectives, characteristics, and strategies of 79 nationwide planning efforts (including 9 within Utah). Among other findings, Conley reports striking commonalties among the strategic plans. In particular, he notes generally vague and imprecise language which he feels may be inadequate to "drive the system in a particular direction, or to cause fundamental change to occur" (p.21).

A common element in most plans is the goal of "improving instruction." However, Conley wonders why this is not an "activity which might be reasonably expected of all school districts" (p.23). Although there is no desire to return to an education system which relies on curricular recipes and prescriptions for successful instruction, there does seem to be a need to clarify the ends toward which we are striving. What changes might be envisaged in terms of curriculum, instruction, and educational contexts in Utah?

Thus, the first implication of the activity described as second wave reform in Utah is the need to step back and sharpen the focus of recent legislative and program initiatives. Educators at the State Office of Education are working to identify world class standards to serve as benchmarks of progress. Their task will be facilitated by a clear mental image of their goal.

The Impact on School-Based Administrators

Most of those responsible for developing new programs and initiatives at the State Office of Education are optimistic that positive change will occur. Yet, because there are so many innovators and policy groups involved, school-based administrators are struggling to find the central focus of the myriad of directions and guidelines. Guidelines will need to be developed to help principals prioritize or cope with all of the new initiatives.

In a statement made in 1990, the Education Commission of the States found that "at best principals receive mixed signals on what state policy makers want for them" (p.7). In a book to be published early in 1994, Murphy states that "it is not unusual . . . to find central authorities clamoring vociferously for strong local control and governance while at the same time mandating state-wide curriculum and assessment strategies" (p.6).

The same is true of Utah. The first wave of policy reform from approximately 1987 to 1990 advocated strong central control and accountability measures. More recently the second wave has rolled in, almost drowning us in new initiatives, funding opportunities, partnerships, student education opportunities, and local control. As noted previously, educators at the State Office of Education believe that many of these new emphases are embodied by Centennial Schools.

The principal of a Centennial School may, however, be overcome by the multitude of demands on his/her time and expertise. He/she is required by law to establish partnerships with business and industry and to identify the appropriate roles for each partner. He/she is expected to change the mechanisms for decision-making at the school by establishing some form of site-based council which ensures parental involvement. In addition, individual Student Education Occupation Plans must be completed for each student. The principal must ensure that the core curriculum is fully implemented while at the same time resolving to monitor the teaching of essential basic skills as well as higher level skills to all students.

Consistent with the Educational Technology Initiative and much of the strategic plan, the principal will also ensure that technology is used in new ways for the management of data for instruction as well as for student assessment. Additionally, he or she is required to be conversant with all of the extra provisions for enhancement of the curriculum by means of interdisciplinary, multi-cultural, or global education materials; and he/she should be able to choose wisely from among the additional options provided by the state office of education and cooperating agencies such as the MESA or the MEP programs.

Once the school principal has established appropriate partnerships and governing councils, and has participated in decision making which is intended to facilitate the delivery of a site-appropriate world class education, he or she is to monitor the instructional practices of teachers and evaluate student learning within the school. For, ultimately, the principal is accountable for ensuring that students leave school properly equipped to succeed in higher education or successfully enter the work-force. These duties, of course, are in addition to the other expectations for management, coordination, and communication which have typically been part of the principal's role. Utah policy-makers might find it useful to listen to the experience of site-based educational leaders in Chicago who "indicate that they are working on average almost sixty hours per week, yet they feel that their most critical concern--leadership for instructional improvement ... is being displaced by managerial issues" (Murphy, 1994, p.35). Many of the pressures faced by principals might be assumed to come from the mixed signals they receive from their policy community. What are the practical implications of new initiatives? Are principals simply expected to add new programs and structures? Are there former activities which may be eliminated?

In a 1991 paper, Louis and Simsek emphasize the need for "schools to break the futile cycle of continuous innovation--implementation--discontinuation" of new policies, programs and strategies; they claim that unless we replace this dysfunctional model with a new one, "the promise of the rhetoric of sweeping second order transformations of schools are [sic] unlikely to occur" (p.22). Based on this evidence, educational policy makers might now be well advised to stop developing and implementing new policies or strategies and to ensure that attempts to improve schools are buffered from the constant battering of the waves of reform.

The second implication then of the current reforms is that, at present, school-based administrators are being overwhelmed. Policy-makers and educators need to look carefully at the pressures placed by new programs and initiatives on the already demanding routines of school-based administrators.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND EMPOWERMENT

In the past, the search for the one best model has also led to an understanding of principals and teachers as technicians "following the recipe" for educational excellence. Their expertise and autonomy have been subjugated to the demands of uniform implementation of packaged programs. Thus, a second implication of new reform efforts is that principals and teachers must be seen as professionals. In consultation with members of the school-community, they will need to be provided with support and encouragement to experiment and to implement strong, innovative, and research-based programs and strategies.

Initiating reform based on the ideas of those most closely involved with the school carries the potential to create and discover many innovative models of educational excellence. But, it also carries with it the potential for ill-considered and ill-fitting reforms. Administrators and teachers alike will need support for in-service and professional development with respect to new priorities and initiatives.

Educators at the State Office of Education seem to agree, however, that although much in-service is directed at teachers, the principal is really the key to the whole thing (Kukic). Yet, apart from the Principal's Academy which provides intensive professional development for 25 principals annually, and occasional training sessions in which principals participate as part of a team from their school, or as part of an agency council, there is minimal training offered specifically for school-based administrators.

If meaningful change is to occur, suitable education for all site-based educators will need to be provided. Questions will need to be answered concerning the type of professional development activities which will best enable strong leadership for multiple reforms. Implementing partnership programs, using technology in innovative ways, and creating new ways of organizing teaching and learning may also change our understanding of appropriate forms of assessment and accountability. Implementing a world class curriculum will require policy-makers to give serious thought to the professional training and empowerment of world class teachers and administrators.

POLICY FOR A "WORLD CLASS CURRICULUM"

In this chapter, some recent educational reforms aimed at the creation of a "world class" standard and curriculum have been discussed--reforms directed by Utah policy makers and developed by educators at the State Office of Education. Also four major themes which run through many of the reform proposals were identified: 1) the need for a clearly articulated vision; 2) for thoughtful and wise use of educational technology; 3) for comprehensive programs which bring parents into a more central role in educational policy-making and decision-making; and, 4) for expanding partnerships of many kinds in order to improve the educational opportunities of all students.

Then three important implications of the reform movement were examined: 1). Policy makers need to develop explicit images which define and refine the vision of a world class curriculum; 2). Guidelines are needed for site-based administrators which offer protection from the fragmentation posed by the demands and conflicts of too many programs and initiatives; 3) Carefully developed programs of ongoing in-service and professional development are required for teachers, site-based administrators, and others involved in planning for a "world class curriculum." Emerging from this discussion are two questions which relate to all of the themes and implications we have discussed and upon which policy-makers and educators might wish to reflect. It is hoped that reflection on these issues will lead to the development of policies which will help to shape the creation and implementation of a world class curriculum.

1. Recent initiatives have emphasized partnerships--teachers working with teachers in site-based councils, partnerships with parents, and a myriad of school-business and school-community partnerships. Policy makers will need to clarify the appropriate role of educational partnerships and to examine the costs and the benefits. In particular, what kind of partnerships might help schools to meet their desired educational objectives for all students? How might schools work with partners to ensure that improved learning occurs as we strive to meet world class standards?

2. Undergirding all of the reform initiatives is the goal of creating a world class curriculum to prepare Utah students for future success. Policy makers will need to ensure that they have carefully articulated what types of learning opportunities and experiences and what curriculum content will best ensure that Utah's students are prepared to succeed in an increasingly challenging society and complex global community. As debate and reflection proceed on this issue, the educational community will need to decide how to balance such diverse student needs as job training and preparation for higher education with broader concepts. These might

> include a focus on intellectual processes such as thinking skills, character development and responsible citizenship, and integrated and interdisciplinary approaches to curriculum--all of which will facilitate a more holistic and comprehensive understanding of the global community in which todays' students live.

This chapter has attempted to enhance understanding of the meaning of educational reform for the teaching and learning contexts of this state. There exists a great deal of commitment and activity on the part of personnel from the State Office of Education and from individual schools determined to improve Utah education. Much has been accomplished already in terms of legislation, planning, partnerships, funding, and programs. Recent legislation including the Utah Strategic Planning Act and the HB 100 establishing The Centennial Schools Program are indications of the enactment to law of the commitment to improve education in Utah. Programs have also been put in place to enhance the use of technology and access to information in Utah schools. Parents are being included in school decision-making councils and a state-wide program to communicate with families about educational issues has been instituted. Funding opportunities have been provided for schools wanting to experiment with new forms of partnerships, with new ways of organizing for instruction, and with new strategies and approaches to teaching and learning.

Yet, uncertainties remain in Utah's reform agenda. Administrators are being overwhelmed by the need for change. The phrase "world class curriculum" is used repeatedly; but we lack a clear image of the nature of the proposed reform and its potential impact on schools. If this lofty goal of achieving a world class standard of education is to be realized, the waves must be calmed. A period of clarity and stability must be achieved in order to dramatically change the learning environments and experiences of Utah students. Empowerment of educators to address the issues raised in this chapter in a unified and holistic way may help to ensure that the impetus is maintained so that meaningful reform actually does extend from the state-house to the classroom.

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CHAPTER THREE

EDUCATOR WORK DESIGN AND SCHOOL RESTRUCTURING: IMPLICATIONS OF EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT AND SHARED LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOLS

By: Diana G. Pounder

HIGHLIGHTS

- Employee involvement efforts in Utah schools are evolving but are more often suggestion involvement or individual job enhancement approaches rather than work group enhancement or high involvement approaches.
- Conceptualizations of leadership are broadening to emphasize shared influence by many employees across the organization.
- Greater attention must be given to redesigning educators' work and restructuring schools to accommodate increased employee participation in decision-making and new conceptualizations of leadership.
- Important work design and school restructuring implications are:

  a) development of teacher teams as the unit of focus in work redesign, teacher leadership, and employee involvement;

  b) establishment of schools-within-schools that are student-centered rather than discipline-centered.
- Work and school redesign efforts should be accompanied by changes in the preparation and development of educators including more cross-disciplinary emphasis and joint preparation across educator roles to enhance the development of teachers as instructional leaders and administrators as leadership facilitators.

Over the past decade, Utah's educational system has increasingly promoted employee involvement in school planning and governance procedures (Johnson, 1994). In fact, some of the first documentation of site-based decision-making described initiatives occurring in Utah schools (Malen & Ogawa, 1988). These efforts have developed and evolved in spite of a great deal of conceptual and operational ambiguity about employee involvement approaches to planning and governance.

Correspondingly, traditional conceptualizations of leadership are changing--in both public and private sector organizations. Increasingly, leadership is described as shared power and influence across organizational roles and hierarchies rather than primarily focusing on the traits or behaviors of individuals in positions of formal authority.

These two complementary developments, employee involvement efforts and leadership re-conceptualization, have strong implications for redesigning educators' work, for restructuring schools, and for preparing and developing Utah's school personnel. The following chapter will discuss: a) different approaches to employee involvement and their

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Diana G. Pounder, is an Associate Professor, Department of Educational Administration, University of Utah viability in school contexts; b) changing leadership conceptualizations; and c) implications of these two developments for educator work design, school restructuring, and educator preparation and development. The chapter will conclude with recommendations for Utah schools.

A TYPOLOGY OF EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT APPROACHES

The concept and practice of employee involvement in education has fallen under several different labels including site-based management, site-based decision-making, participative decision-making, and others. Regardless of the terminology used, the idea of employee involvement has become increasingly popular in spite of the continued ambiguity and variability in the concept and its practice.

However, a recent article on employee involvement approaches (Mohrman & Lawler, 1992) may help conceptually and operationally clarify the range of employee involvement approaches in schools. The article describes three basic types of employee involvement in organizations. These types are referred to as suggestion involvement, job involvement (including individual job enhancement and work group enhancement), and high involvement.

Suggestion involvement approaches create opportunities for employees to offer advice about organizational problems or to make suggestions for organizational improvement. Suggestion involvement may also provide opportunities for employees to acquire greater information about the organization, gain knowledge of problem-solving or decision-making processes, and share in certain organizational rewards. However, suggestion involvement does not make significant changes in the organizational control structures for most decision issues, and often only a small percentage of employees are included in suggestion involvement on a very limited basis.

Job involvement is the second type of employee involvement approach described. Job involvement approaches focus on ways to design work to enhance employee motivation and performance. There are two sub-categories of work design efforts, depending on the unit of involvement--individual job enhancement or work group enhancement. In the case of individual job enhancement, often an established model for job enrichment is followed (see Hackman & Oldham, 1973). Specifically, jobs are designed to increase:

1) skill variety (need for many different skills to accomplish tasks);
2) task identity (completion of a whole task or piece of work);
3) task significance (degree to which a job affects others or their work in the organization);

4) autonomy (freedom, independence, discretion in scheduling or carrying out work assignments); and

5) feedback (information on performance from the job itself).

The creation of work groups or teams differs from individual job enrichment in that it treats the work group as the unit of employee involvement, rather than the individual job. Work groups are designed to increase members' responsibility for the group's performance and to create opportunities for self-management. Work group members must develop interpersonal and group decision-making skills and often have greater control over a broader range of work issues including staffing decisions, performance assessment, reward structures, and a host of decisions affecting the way the work is done and coordinated. Team approaches are more complicated to introduce and maintain in most organizations "but may be necessary if the work is such that no one individual can do a whole part of it and get feedback about it" (Mohrman & Lawler, 1992).

The third employee involvement approach is termed high involvement and builds upon elements of the previous two approaches. High involvement approaches structure the organization so that employees across all organizational levels have a sense of influence over the total organization rather than only over their jobs or their work groups. Organizational power, information, knowledge, and rewards are distributed across organizational hierarchies and work units. Often, organizations are designed around "consumer-based" (or student-based) units rather than around "functional" (or content area) units. Employees must acquire not only the decision-making skills and knowledge listed above in the other involvement approaches but also must understand the entire work process and management fundamentals such as financial, legal, political, or social concerns. To achieve a high involvement approach, virtually every aspect of the organization and its control mechanisms must be redesigned.

Employee Involvement Approaches in Schools

A variety of employee involvement approaches are being implemented in schools across the country. For example, the Utah Governor's Centennial Schools program calls for some type or degree of employee involvement in every selected school site project while the Texas legislature requires that Texas school districts practice site-based management. It is probably safe to assume that most employee involvement plans could be described as suggestion involvement because this approach is easiest to implement within the parameters of the traditional structure of public schools. Often representative teachers serve on various school or district advisory councils or committees, but decision authority rests within the traditional administrative or governance hierarchy.

Some schools have also implemented at least a limited job involvement approach by enriching some teacher jobs with additional leadership, coordination, or supervision responsibilities (e.g. lead teachers, master teachers, or other career ladder or differential staffing positions). Utah employee involvement plans have included individual job enhancement efforts such as the teacher career ladder (Murphy & Hart, 1986) or limited differential staffing arrangements as well as suggestion involvement approaches described above.

Perhaps less common are job involvement approaches using work groups as the unit of employee involvement. The clearest example of this method may be found in some middle schools in which teachers are organized into teams that have decision-making responsibilities for the educational program of a particular sub-school of students in the school. Team decisions may include work issues such as curricular emphasis and coordination, teaching or classroom management methods, student placement and grouping, curricular and co-curricular scheduling, student assessment, coordinated parent communication, staffing arrangements, or budgetary allocations. (In this regard the work groups display elements of high involvement organizations because the work is organized around student-based units rather than around discipline-based departments.) These and other school-within-school arrangements may begin to capture some of the elements of the work group strategy of job involvement. These strategies may be most beneficial at the secondary level where teachers do not have as much control over the whole task of educating students or have as much opportunity to get feedback about the overall outcomes of the student's education.

It is difficult to think of examples of high involvement approaches in public schools today. Further, because the decision-making control and influence over many public school issues rest outside the local school or district organization--that is, at the state or even federal level--it is much less likely that a high involvement approach could be reasonably implemented in public schools. However, as mentioned above, some schools have implemented an important feature of high involvement plans with the organization of work into student-based units rather than into discipline-based departments.

Given the employee involvement approaches discussed above, work group enhancement probably has the greatest potential for meaningful, yet achievable, change in schools. Current suggestion involvement approaches, though fairly easy to implement, do not make significant change in the work or structure of schools. By contrast, high involvement approaches would be extremely difficult to implement in schools due to the constraints of state control and federal influence. However, job involvement approaches --particularly those with emphasis on the work group as the decision-making unit--hold promise for more substantive restructuring of schools and their work.

LEADERSHIP RECONCEPTUALIZED

Educational leadership is most typically framed with the individual as the unit of emphasis or focus. Further, leadership by those in a position of formal authority (e.g. the principal) has probably received proportionately more attention than informal leadership by others in the school setting. Thus, school leadership has largely been conceptualized as the traits, behaviors, or management styles of individual administrators (with and without consideration of situational context).

However, corresponding to reform trends which emphasize employee involvement, a different view of leadership has emerged--a perspective with a broader conceptualization of leadership as well as a broader unit of focus. For instance, some scholars have applied the concept of social influence to their definitions and study of leadership (Cartwright, 1959; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Ogawa & Bossert, 1989). Turner's (1991) definition of social influence--the process through which people directly or indirectly influence the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others--suggests that leadership may be a form of social influence. Leadership as social influence is evidenced when individuals utilize their personal attributes, their control over valuable resources, or their political prowess (Yukl, 1989) to modify the responses and actions of others (March, 1955; Simon, 1957).

Thus, these and other scholars (Tannenbaum & Cooke, 1979) argue that leadership exists at various organizational levels and can be exerted by any organizational member, regardless of formal position authority. Further, Tannenbaum offers evidence that the degree to which leadership is shared across organizational hierarchies can be an important determinate of the effectiveness with which organizations operate.

A recent study (Adams, 1993) conducted in a large urban Utah school district documented the presence of organizational leadership, or leadership distributed across organizational roles and hierarchies in the school. Specifically, the study examined the influence exercised by various individuals or groups in the school setting--the principal, the school secretary, faculty/staff members acting as a group, a faculty/staff member acting alone, and patrons in the community. The study also assessed the relationship between the influence of these individuals or groups and school effectiveness outcomes--including student achievement, student attendance, turnover rates of certificated staff, and perceptions of effectiveness.

Findings of the study indicated that most of these individuals or groups exercised "some influence" to "quite a lot of influence." Specifically, principals were thought to exercise the most influence followed in descending order of influence by faculty/staff members acting as a group, patrons in the community, school secretaries, and faculty/staff members acting alone.

Perhaps more surprising were the findings about the relationships between the influence of various individuals or groups and the school outcomes. For instance, the principal's influence was perceived to have no significant direct relationship to school outcome measures and only one significant indirect relationship to "perceived school effectiveness." Whereas, the influence of most other individuals or groups within the school had significant direct relationships to at least one school outcome. The effect of patrons' influence was most pronounced, revealing significant direct relationships with several school outcomes--student achievement, student attendance, and turnover of faculty/staff.

These study results re-enforce the conceptualization of leadership as a type of influence that may (or perhaps should) be shared across both the organization and organizational roles. Further, the focus of leadership or influence might best be shifted from the individual to the group or organizational unit.

This shift of focus from individual leadership to shared group leadership also may effectively address one of the most important obstacles to the institutionalization of many struggling teacher leadership efforts--egalitarianism (Troen & Boles, 1993). The norm of egalitarianism in school cultures has tended to inhibit individual teachers from exercising leadership or influence in school or district planning and decision-making. Often teachers are reluctant to apply for differentiated staffing roles or career ladder positions that require leadership or supervisory responsibilities because they don't want to "raise themselves above the others" in the school, thus violating a strong professional norm.

Another norm that may inhibit the effectiveness of individual teacher leadership efforts is the norm of cooperation versus competition. Because teachers' work is highly interdependent, cooperation is a more acceptable norm or standard of professional behavior than is competition. For example, although teachers tend to resist merit pay programs for many reasons, among these is the sense that competition for merit pay may unfavorably influence their work relationships. Thus, a focus on work groups as the leadership unit may be more compatible with the culture of schools and the profession, honoring egalitarianism and cooperation as valued norms.

This broader conceptualization of leadership would suggest that not only should the work of teachers and other educators be structured to increase opportunities for influence in school planning decisions but also that this influence may be more effective if exercised by a group or work team. Teacher groups may be particularly effective as instructional leaders, assessing the instructional needs of students, implementing and coordinating instructional programs or methods, and analyzing and evaluating the effects of instructional approaches or strategies.

This new leadership conceptualization would also suggest that the work of designated leaders such as principals may need to be revised accordingly. Perhaps, the new role of managers is to teach employees to lead and manage themselves (Sims, 1989), effectively developing the influence capabilities of the work unit and increasing its information, knowledge, skills, and the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards it receives for excellent performance (Lawler & Mohrman, 1989). As emphasized by Troen and Boles (1993), "[Principals] need to provide teachers with both the reason and the opportunity, including time, to lead."

EDUCATOR WORK DESIGN AND SCHOOL RESTRUCTURING IMPLICATIONS

Employee involvement and broader conceptualizations of leadership have numerous implications for educators' work and school organizations today. In particular, these tandem developments point to the merit of work teams as the focal unit in employee involvement and leadership initiatives, with schools-within-schools as the complementary structural adaptation in schools. The rationale for this team and sub-school emphasis can be summarized as follows:

1) work group enhancement may be most viable "if the work is such that no one individual can do a whole part of it and get feedback about it" (Mohrman & Lawler, 1992) as is especially the case in secondary teaching;
2) leadership may be more accurately described as shared influence across organizational roles and hierarchies, and this shared leadership is perhaps more effective than individual leadership efforts (Tannenbaum & Cooke, 1979; Adams, 1993);
3) work group leadership arrangements may be more compatible with norms of egalitarianism and cooperation prevalent in school organizations (Troen & Boles, 1993).

The following sections will address the development of teacher teams and schools-within-schools as a promising approach to educator work redesign and school restructuring.

Development of Work Teams

Many would argue that the work of teachers, as analyzed by Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model (1973) above, is a reasonably enriched job design. Certainly, teachers' work typically requires a great deal of skill variety and task significance, and in most traditional elementary school settings, teachers' jobs may have high task identity, autonomy, and feedback. However, in traditional departmentalized secondary school settings, it may be argued that teachers' jobs do not have strong task identity or feedback because teachers do not know, understand, or influence students' complete educational experience and outcomes. Rather, teachers deal with students' education in a fractionalized manor, influencing and having knowledge of student learning in only one class or content area. Similarly, rigid secondary school schedules of 50 minute class periods may decrease teachers' sense of autonomy in designing class instruction to suit learners' needs or to reinforce important skills beyond a single content area.

It is this core technology of schools--teaching--that must be considered in enhancing the design of teachers' work. Because teachers (especially at the secondary level) may not feel a sense of responsibility for the whole task of educating students and because work arrangements may provide limited opportunity for feedback and autonomy, teachers' work may be more effectively enhanced by developing work teams rather than enhancing individual teacher jobs.

By establishing teams as the primary unit of influence in decision-making, teachers may enhance their breadth of knowledge and influence in a student's total educational experience and outcomes as well as increase their level of control over how their work is done, including increased flexibility and control over time and other instructional resources and parameters. At the same time, this influence and power may be exercised in a context or structure that is congruent with the professional norms of egalitarianism and cooperation discussed above.

Further, the development of work teams may capitalize on the collective influence and knowledge of school personnel while confronting the complexity of the educational process--that individual teachers and groups are interdependent in achieving the broad goals of educating students. If so, teachers would need to gain broad organizational information as well as to develop effective group problem-solving skills. Teachers would also need a reconfigured work day to allow time to acquire and utilize these skills and information for shared decision-making. Lastly, teacher teams would need to be kept to a reasonable size for efficient group interaction or communication, decision-making, and work coordination (perhaps four to six members per team).

Establishment of Schools-within-Schools

To accommodate employee involvement approaches beyond that of simple suggestion involvement, organizational design changes will probably need to occur concurrently with job design changes, especially when teacher work teams become the unit of focus in work redesign. If work teams are established to increase teachers' opportunity for task identity, feedback, and autonomy, then a team's span of control or influence must be increased accordingly. That is, teacher teams need to have the authority to influence students' educational experience across a wide range of content areas and developmental activities. At the same time, this span of influence must be limited to a manageable size for a relatively small teacher team (see above).

These considerations would suggest that sub-schools or schools-within-schools may be appropriate organizational design changes to accompany teacher teams. A school-within-a-school would include a specific subset of students from the total school enrollment, and the corresponding teacher team would have more comprehensive influence and responsibility over these students' educational experience, including education across a broad range of individual and interdisciplinary content areas with coordinated home-school interaction, guidance, or social services. Additionally, teacher teams may have influence over appropriate extra-curricular or co-curricular activities as well. Schools-within-schools would mimic an important element of high employee involvement approaches by organizing work to be more student-centered than discipline-centered. These changes in the work and organizational structure may allow teachers greater flexibility to influence students' total educational experience, as well as the opportunity for greater knowledge of overall student outcomes. Because teachers may be more involved in the decision-making as well as the corresponding feedback loop, they would be better prepared to make appropriate and timely adjustments to students' instructional and developmental programs.[1]

The development of schools-within-schools would necessitate some horizontal coordination between teams or sub-schools as well as the typical vertical coordination between school levels (e.g. elementary, middle, high schools). The principal would likely become an important linking agent between and among the various sub-school teams, as well as to become a teacher, providing information to help teacher teams develop organizational and self-management skills.

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[1] An additional benefit of schools-within-schools' more holistic approach to students' educational experience is the potential for students to become more integrated or connected to school. This may be especially important at the secondary school level where some students become disengaged or lost within today's large comprehensive schools. Further, parents may find schools to be more user-friendly because home-school communication can become more coordinated and less random. The school's approach to the child's development may more nearly resemble a parent's approach; that is, the whole child would become the focus rather than fractionalized attention to separate skills or curricular domains.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATORS

If educators' work and schools are redesigned, then corresponding changes in the preparation and development of teachers and administrators are important. The skills and knowledge base emphasized in teacher pre-service and in-service development may need to broaden to include instructional leadership emphasis as well as other areas of study typically found in administrator or counselor preparation programs. Specifically, teachers must develop effective group dynamics skills including interpersonal communication and cooperation, shared decision-making, and creative problem-solving. They must also become more knowledgeable about organizational management and behavior, including understandings of social, political, financial, and legal issues in schools.

Additionally, administrator pre-service and in-service development may need to socialize principals to norms and behaviors compatible with employee involvement efforts and new conceptualizations of leadership. The current emphasis found in most administrator preparation programs may need to shift from instructional leadership to leadership empowerment and facilitation. New role conceptualizations of principals as teachers, communicators, linking agents, or facilitators in shared or team leadership efforts must be emphasized to shape administrator attitudes and behaviors. Specifically, administrators must develop skills that enhance sharing --of information, power, and authority in decision-making and creative problem-solving.

These implications for educator development would suggest that there should be more points of intersection between the preparation of teachers, administrators, counselors, or other specific educator roles. Further, for content or skill domains common across educator preparation programs, joint preparation of educators should occur. That is, future teachers, administrators, and other educators may need to be combined in course or skill developmental activities so that process skills for shared problem-solving and decision-making may be modeled.

This type of joint or cross-disciplinary preparation may be found in courses such as the University of Utah's Collaborative Educational Problem Solving and Conflict Resolution in which students and practitioners from a variety of different educator roles are combined in teams to resolve hypothetical educational problems. Similarly, the Utah Education Consortium recently appointed a task force to study the conceptual and implementation considerations for preparing educators in Interdisciplinary Professional Development Schools (PDS).

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Employee involvement efforts in Utah schools have increasingly promoted employee involvement in planning and governance procedures. Most involvement efforts could be described as suggestion involvement or individual job enhancement approaches, although work group enhancement approaches may hold more promise for meaningful school change. Correspondingly, leadership is being re conceptualized more broadly to emphasize shared influence by many employees across the organization, with work group influence rather than individual influence a more promising strategy for school effectiveness. The implications of these two developments suggest that teacher teams may necessarily become the key decision-making unit and student-centered schools-within-schools the corresponding structural focus. The rationale for this team and sub-school emphasis is founded largely on the following:

1) Work group enhancement may be most viable "if the work is such that no one individual can do a whole part of it and get feedback about it" (Mohrman & Lawler, 1992), as is especially the case in secondary teaching;
2) leadership may be more accurately described as shared influence across organizational roles and hierarchies, and this shared leadership is perhaps more effective than individual leadership efforts (Tannenbaum & Cooke, 1979; Adams, 1993);
3) work group leadership arrangements may be more compatible with norms of egalitarianism and cooperation prevalent in school organizations (Troen & Boles, 1993).

These work and school redesign efforts would necessarily precipitate changes in the preparation and development of Utah's educators, including more cross-disciplinary emphasis and joint preparation across educator roles to enhance the development of teachers as instructional leaders and administrators as leadership facilitators.

Thus, the following recommendations are made:

1) More attention should be given to work group enhancement as an approach to employee involvement in school planning and decision-making with emphasis on shared group influence in leadership initiatives.
2) Teacher teams with key decision-making responsibilities for student groups in schools-within-schools should be explored as potentially more effective work redesign and school restructuring efforts than current emphasis on individual teacher job enhancement or whole school focus in shared planning and decision-making.
3) These work redesign and school restructuring efforts should be accompanied by changes in the preparation and development of Utah's educators, including more cross-disciplinary emphasis and joint preparation across educator roles to enhance the development of teachers as instructional leaders and administrators as leadership facilitators.

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CHAPTER FOUR

THE INCLUSION OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILTIES IN REGULAR SCHOOLS AND CLASSROOMS IN UTAH

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HIGHLIGHTS

For successful inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms, the following supports must be in place:

- Acceptance of shared responsibility by both regular and special educators.
- Administrative leadership and support.
- Advance and on-going training of both regular and special educators.
- Parental and student support and cooperation.
- Advance and on-going training of peer tutors and paraprofessionals.
- Support services from such personnel as speech pathologists, audiologists, occupational and physical therapists, behavioral specialists, psychologists, social workers, school nurses, etc.
- Appropriate assistive technology devices, such as FM wireless hearing systems, augmentative communication devices, computers, etc.
- Time and incentives for educators to plan and work together.

One of the hottest issues in both regular and special education in Utah is how and when to accommodate students with disabilities in regular education schools and classrooms. Historically, children with visual and hearing losses were educated in separate schools. Some students with mental retardation and physical disabilities were educated in separate schools and classes while others were excluded entirely from public education. In contrast, most children with learning disabilities, speech and language impairments, and emotional disturbances were educated in regular classrooms but with few specialized, individualized services to address their needs. In 1975, what is now known as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)[2] required that schools accepting IDEA funds provide to all students with disabilities a free appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment appropriate to their needs. For most of the current 5 million school-age children with disabilities in this country, this meant placement in a combination of regular classrooms and special education classrooms called resource rooms. For a minority it meant

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[1] Authors are listed in alphabetical order; each contributed significantly to the chapter.

[2] 20 U.S.C. §§ 1400 et seq.

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self-contained special education classrooms or schools. For an even smaller number it meant residential or institutional placement.

Within the past decade a movement to educate all children with disabilities in mainstream settings has emerged as a natural outgrowth of the statutory preference that the education of these children should be with their non-disabled peers to the maximum extent appropriate. The initiative to base more children with disabilities in regular schools and classrooms was initially spearheaded by former Assistant Secretary of Education, Madeline Will, who in 1986 called for shared responsibility between regular and special educators in meeting the academic needs of children with learning problems.[3] Since then it has been picked up by advocates for students with severe disabilities including those with mental retardation, who believe that the segregation of students with disabilities is analogous to the segregation of students on the basis of race and may well be a denial of equal protection of the laws under the Fourteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution.[4] For these advocates, instruction with non-disabled peers is also a learning issue--an issue of appropriate education.

The push to base all students with disabilities in regular classrooms is called the inclusion movement. Those supporting "full inclusion" argue that all special services should be brought to the student rather than vice versa and that all students with disabilities should be enrolled full time in regular classrooms in the school they would attend if not disabled. Those supporting "partial inclusion" are comfortable with the retention of some "pull-out" services so long as students with disabilities are regular members of a regular classroom that serves as a homebase for the students.

A key objective of the push to establish joint special-education/regular-education responsibility for student learning has been to reduce the "refer-test-label-place" procedure that is common for special education students in today's schools.[5] This procedure refers to the fact that most children referred for special education testing end up being labeled as children with disabilities and provided with some degree of pull-out special education services. The concern, by Will and others, is that those who are pulled out from their regular classrooms and schools are unduly stigmatized, that their peers do not learn to interact with them effectively, and that their post-school outcomes are not good. Yet implementation of more collaborative and inclusive service delivery methods often requires structural reorganization within the school. Structural reorganization is never easy to accomplish and brings a series of challenges in its wake.

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[3] Will, M. (1986). Educating children with learning problems: A shared responsibility. Exceptional Children, 52, 411-415.

[4] *See, e.g.*, McDonnell, A.P., and Hardman, M.L. (1989). The desegregation of America's special schools: Strategies for change. The Journal of the Ass'n for Persons with Severe Handicaps, 14, 68-74.

[5] Algozzine, B., Christenson, S., & Ysseldyke, J.E. (1982). Probabilities associated with the referral to placement process. Teacher Education and Special Education, 5, 19-23; Zins, J.E., Curtis, M.J., Graden, J.L., & Ponti, C.R. (1988). Helping students succeed in the regular classroom. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

THE UTAH STATE OFFICE OF EDUCATION PERSPECTIVE

The Utah State Office of Education both supports the goals of the inclusion movement and continues to honor the need to make educational decisions for students based on their individual needs. This is a tricky balance to maintain as administrators frequently want to adopt blanket service-delivery policies and fit all students into them. As mentioned in last year's UEPC review of The Status of Public Education in Utah: An Overview of the Issues, the Utah State Office of Education in 1991 issued a report entitled the "Utah Agenda for Meeting the Needs of Students with Disabilities." The report was intended to supplement the state Public Education Strategic Plan and to further its implementation for all of Utah's students. Among the "Belief Statements" in the Utah Agenda with important implications for the placement of students with disabilities are the following:

1) Each individual has the ability to learn;
2) Every individual is entitled to an effective education, treatment, and services consistent with his/her unique needs;
3) Society is enriched by an understanding of and integration with all members of that society; and
4) Special education is not a separate system but a set of unique interventions within the responsibility of general education.[6]

The Utah Agenda identifies eight strategies for meeting its objective of improving the delivery of effective special instruction to students with disabilities in Utah schools. Strategy number five addresses both inclusion and individualization. Strategy five is to "develop and implement a comprehensive program to provide greater access and opportunities for integration into the most inclusive environment appropriate to meet the needs of each student."[7]

Action plans to implement strategy five include technical assistance and staff development at state and local levels. The State Office of Education, sometimes with the help of federal funds, has initiated or supported several important training projects attempting to successfully integrate students with disabilities in regular education instructional settings. These training and evaluation projects have focused primarily on integrating students with severe disabilities into regular schools and classrooms. Less attention has been given to delivering individualized instruction to students with mild disabilities in regular classrooms because students with mild disabilities are not typically excluded from regular classrooms even if they do not receive individualized instruction therein. Nonetheless, state funds have also been used to evaluate the success of locally initiated projects serving students with mild disabilities in regular classrooms.

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[6] Utah State Office of Education (1991). Utah Agenda for Meeting the Needs of Students with Disabilities, p. iii.

[7] Utah State Office of Education (1991). Utah Agenda for Meeting the Needs of Students with Disabilities, p. 5-1.

ILLUSTRATIVE TRAINING AND EVALUATION PROJECTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF UTAH

The next two subsections of this chapter report on two grant projects at the University of Utah: one a federally funded training project and one a state-funded evaluation project. Many of the issues involved in successful implementation of an inclusion philosophy are illustrated by these two grant projects. The results of these and similar projects are critical for educational administrators and state legislators to understand, lest they be tempted to adopt a philosophy of inclusion without providing the supports necessary for its effective implementation. It cannot be stressed enough that inclusion cannot be successfully implemented by will and good intentions alone. Training, incentives, support services, carefully designed administrative structures, and strong administrative leadership must be in place.

The first subsection describes a training grant to the Department of Special Education to support the inclusion of students with severe cognitive and physical disabilities in regular education classrooms. The philosophical underpinnings of the training model are described first and are followed by a description of the structure used to effectuate inclusion goals. Finally, the subsection summarizes the reported improvements in the adaptive behaviors of students with severe disabilities and the perceptions of the teachers who were involved in the training.

The second subsection describes a research grant to the Department of Special Education to assess the effectiveness of delivering special education instruction to students with mild learning and behavioral disabilities in regular education settings. This subsection describes the model used to implement individualized instruction in a Granite District elementary school. It then reports on the outcomes achieved by the participating students and on the perceptions of the faculty involved in the model.

Each grant project illuminates various prerequisites of successful inclusion--requirements such as administrative leadership, staff training, support services, effective interpersonal communication skills, and planning time. The chapter concludes with reflections on and recommendations for reform proposals dealing with inclusion.

The School and Community Integration Project (SCIP) for Students with Severe Disabilities

Program Characteristics

The following empirically validated[8] administrative elements have been adopted by the University of Utah Department of Special Education's SCIP training grant: (1) students with severe disabilities are served in the school they would attend if not disabled, (2) the extent to which students participate in grade-level classes is based on their educational needs, (3) curriculum and instruction provided to students in grade-level or content-area classes are adapted to meet their individual needs, (4) students are provided the support necessary to ensure their success in all learning environments, and (5) services are delivered through a transdisciplinary model. The rationale underlying each of these elements is described in turn.

1. Attending the neighborhood school. The research literature supports at least two important reasons for serving students with severe disabilities in the schools they would attend if not disabled. First, the strength of our social linkages with other members of our community is critical to our quality of life.[9] These linkages provide emotional, social, financial, and logistical support for our participation in the community. For children these linkages are strongest with peers who live in the same geographic area. If students with severe cognitive and physical disabilities are bussed away from their neighborhood to attend school, the opportunities to develop these critical linkages are diminished[10] thereby impeding the development of meaningful post-school outcomes for these students.

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[8] *See* Brown, L. B., Long, E., Udvari-Solner, A., Davis, L., VanDeventer, P., Ahlgran, C., Johnson, F., Gruenwald, L., & Jorgensen, J. (1989). The home school: Why students with severe intellectual disabilities must attend the schools of their brothers, sisters, friends, and neighbors. The Journal of the Association For Persons with Severe Handicaps, 14, 1-7. *Cf.* McDonnell, A., McDonnell, J., Hardman, M. L., & McCune, G.(1991). Educating students with severe disabilities in their neighborhood school: The Utah Elementary Integration Model. Remedial and Special Education, 12, 34-44; Sailor, W., Anderson, J. L., Halvorsen, A. T., Doering, K., Filler, J., & Goetz, L. (1989). The Comprehensive Local School: Regular Education for All Students with Disabilities. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes; Villa R. A., Thousand, J. S., Stainback, W., & Stainback, S. (1992). Restructuring for Caring and Effective Education: An Administrative Guide to Creating Heterogeneous Schools. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

[9] Unger, D. G., & Wadersman, A. (1985). The importance of neighbors: The social, cognitive, and affective components of neighboring. American Journal of Community Psychology, 13, 139-169.

[10] *See* McDonnell, J., Hardman, M., Hightower, J., & Keifer-O'Donnell, R. (1991). Variables associated with in-school and out-of-school integration of secondary students with severe disabilities. Education and Training in Mental Retardation, 26, 243-257.

Second, neighborhood school programs are better able to support the inclusion of students with severe disabilities in grade-level or content-area classes than are schools where special education classes are clustered together at one school site. This is true because the proportion of students with severe disabilities to students without disabilities in neighborhood school programs matches natural proportions. Yet in schools with "cluster units," even in those that believe in including special education students in mainstream classrooms, the sheer number of students with disabilities creates significant stress on regular classroom resources.[11]

2. Participation in grade-level and content-area classes. The SCIP project was structured to maximize the participation of students with severe disabilities in grade-level and content-area classes. The extent to which students participate in these settings, however, is driven by their Individualized Education Program (IEP). Students receive instruction within regular education classrooms only when the content of the regular classroom curriculum is harmonious with a student's individualized education goals. Given the significant variation in the educational needs of students with severe disabilities, what this means in practice is that some students will be included in all regular class activities while others may receive instruction in a variety of settings, including regular classes, other settings within the school (i.e., lunch room, playground, resource rooms), and community sites.

3. Adapting curriculum and instruction. The extent to which students with severe disabilities are able to participate in grade-level and content-area classes hinges on the skill of professionals to adapt curriculum and instruction to meet their individual needs. Research in recent years has led to an explosion of approaches for achieving this outcome.[12] Some of these strategies include the use of cooperative learning groups; peer tutors; specialized materials or learning tools (assistive technology devices) to supplement instruction; development of alternate response modes for students; and, in some cases, the use of what is called parallel instruction.[13] Interestingly, many of these strategies are widely used for students without disabilities because they are methods of individualizing instruction

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[11] *See* id.

[12] *See* Giangreco, M. F. & Putnam, J. W. *op cit.* .

[13] Putnam, J. W. (1993). Cooperative Learning and Strategies for Inclusion: Celebrating Diversity in the Classroom. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes. Parallel instruction is more controversial than other classroom adaptations because it acknowledges that the regular curriculum is not appropriate and that a different, but parallel, curriculum is required. For instance, while the regular classroom is engaged in a reading activity, the student with a severe disability might be engaged in reading readiness activities. Such adaptations are already made for some gifted students, for whom, e.g., the regular science program is boring and who need science activities on a more challenging level.

to meet the needs of a diversified student body whose learning rates and styles vary from one another.[14]

4. Providing support. By definition, students with severe disabilities require on-going support to be successful in home, school, and community settings. Research from a variety of contexts has guided practitioners in the effective use of necessary support services in regular education settings.[15] Unlike cluster or special school programs that typically rely on paid special education staff to provide support to students, inclusive programs broaden the network of individuals who assist students in meeting their educational goals; in addition to the paid special education staff, support is provided by grade-level and content-area teachers and by same-age and cross-age peers.

Expanding the group of individuals who support students in their educational program obviously has a significant impact on the role of the special education teacher as well as on everyone else. In inclusive programs, the special education teacher becomes a manager of resources--human and material--rather than simply an instructor. The teacher must train paraprofessionals, coordinate curriculum with the regular teacher, locate and adapt materials for use by special education students in the regular classroom, and communicate effectively with virtually everyone. In order to ensure a student's success the teacher must spend the majority of his or her time training other individuals within the school to use effective pedagogy and to accommodate each student's needs. This change is the most significant organizational difference between inclusive and traditional programs for students with severe disabilities.

5. Transdisciplinary teaming. Another critical element of effective inclusive programs is the development and implementation of a transdisciplinary team model at the building level.[16] Historically, the field of special education has relied on multidisciplinary or interdisciplinary models to provide services to students. In these models, instruction is provided along disciplinary lines. Teachers design and implement instruction on basic academics and self-help skills. Speech/language therapists design and implement

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[14] Lee, V.E., Bryk, A.S., and Smith, J.B. (1993). The organization of effective secondary schools. In L. Darling Hammond (Ed.), Review of Research in Education (pp. 171-268). Washington, D.C.: The American Educational Research Association.

[15] Giangreco & Putnam, *op cit.*; Nisbet, J., Clark, M., & Cover, S. (1991). Living it up! An analysis of research on community living. In L. H. Meyer, C. A. Peck, & L. Brown (Eds.), Critical Issues in the Lives of People with Severe Disabilities (pp. 115-144). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes; Rusch, F. R., Chadsey-Rusch, J., & Johnson, J. R. (1991). Supported employment: Emerging opportunities for employment integration. In L. H. Meyer, C. A. Peck, & L. Brown (Eds.), Critical Issues in the Lives of People with Severe Disabilities (pp. 145-170). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

[16] Rainforth, B., York, J., Macdonald, C. (1992). Collaborative Teams for Students with Severe Disabilities: Integrating Therapy and Educational Services. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

instruction in the area of communication; and physical therapists design and implement instruction in the area of motor development.

Research suggests that inclusive programs are most effective when all of the professionals directly involved in meeting the student's IEP goals work together as a transdisciplinary team.[17] For most students, the team includes the special educator, grade-level or content-area teachers, related servers, parents, peers, and the student. In a transdisciplinary model, staunch disciplinary roles are broken down; and each team member shares his or her expertise with the others to allow an integrated and comprehensive educational program to be delivered to the student. For example, instead of working just with the student, the speech/language specialist trains other team members to facilitate the student's communication across all activities and environments. This process of sharing information occurs among all team members.

A transdisciplinary model serves another important function in inclusive programs, which is to blur the territorial lines between special and regular education. In inclusive programs, students with severe disabilities are not viewed as either "yours" or "mine" but rather as "ours." A transdisciplinary model of service delivery creates a professional environment that supports the inclusion of children in the school and regular classes.

South Sanpete's Inclusion Model

One of the Utah school districts participating in SCIP and serving students with severe disabilities in neighborhood schools is South Sanpete. During the 1986-87 school year, students with severe disabilities at both the elementary and secondary levels were moved from integrated cluster programs to inclusive programs in their neighborhood schools.

The secondary school program is staffed by one full-time special educator, four full-time paraprofessionals, a part-time speech/language specialist, and a part-time physical therapist. This staff serves approximately eleven students with severe disabilities at two separate high schools and one middle school. The staff is distributed across these schools based on the number and educational needs of the students attending each school. The special educator for students with severe disabilities develops and monitors their IEPs. Based on the needs of the students in each building and/or the requests for assistance made by building staff, the teacher allocates times to each school; in any event, the teacher is present in each building and available to staff several times per week. Related service staff are assigned to the building based on the individual needs of the students. Their building activities focus on consultation with regular and special education staff about the design and implementation of instructional programs and activities.

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[17] Id.

The special educator for students with mild disabilities coordinates the activities of the paraprofessionals ensuring that they complete instructional assignments. This teacher also acts as a contact person for regular education teachers serving students with severe disabilities when their special education teacher is not in the building.

The organizational structure of the elementary program is similar to that of the secondary program. Elementary students are served in three schools, and at least one full time paraprofessional is assigned to each of the elementary schools. Related service staff not only consult but sometimes provide direct therapy to students. The special educator for students with severe disabilities designs and monitors all of their student's instructional activities, while the special educator for students with mild disabilities in each school monitors the paraprofessional staff. Students with severe disabilities are assigned to a homeroom class to complete all normal routines of the school day. They also receive instruction in regular curriculum areas when they are appropriate to their IEP goals and objectives. When the regular curriculum cannot be adapted to meet their needs, paraprofessionals or peer tutors instruct them either in their homeroom or in other areas in the building.

Evaluation Procedure and Results

The evaluation of the inclusive programs for participating SCIP students focused on (1) changes in students' adaptive behavior, a factor strongly associated with the successful adjustment of adults with disabilities to life in the community; (2) opportunities for interaction between students with and without disabilities during the school day; and (3) teacher satisfaction with the inclusion of students with severe disabilities in grade-level or content-area classes. More detailed descriptions of the methods and results of these evaluation efforts are reported elsewhere.[18]

Overall, the SCIP project evaluated the above outcomes for the 1989-90 school year in five participating high schools and six participating elementary schools distributed geographically throughout Utah. A total of 39 high school students and 43 elementary school students were involved in the SCIP programs. The average intelligence quotient (IQ) for students was 42. Sixteen percent (13) of the students demonstrated a significant physical impairment, and twenty-two percent (18) demonstrated moderate to very serious behavior problems.

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[18] *See* McDonnell, A., McDonnell, J., Hardman, M. L., & McCune, G. (1991) op cit.; McDonnell, J., Hardman, M., Hightower, J., & Keifer-O'Donnell, R. op cit.; McDonnell, J., Hardman, M.L., Hightower, J., Kiefer-O'Donnell, R., & Drew, C. (1993). The impact of community-based instruction on the development of adaptive behavior in secondary students with mental retardation. American Journal on Mental Retardation, 97, 575-584.

A comparison of pre- and post-test scores on an adaptive behavior scale revealed that the high school students made statistically significant gains in three adaptive behavior skill areas: social and communication skills, personal living skills, and community living skills. Motor skills did not increase significantly, which is not surprising for high school students since their range of motion and mobility are usually well established. Elementary students participating in these programs made gains in all four performance areas.

In addition to making significant gains in adaptive behaviors, participating high school students had contact with non-disabled peers an average of 78 percent of each school day. These interactions included (a) participation in content areas classes, (b) interaction with peer tutors for instruction on personal management and leisure activities, and (c) participation in the normal routines of the school day (i.e., lunch, assemblies, extra-curricular activities). Elementary students interacted with peers without disabilities an average of 54 percent of each school day ranging from zero to 100 percent. These interactions included (a) participation in an age-appropriate homeroom class for academic and nonacademic instruction, (b) interaction with peer tutors outside their grade-level class for instruction on targeted IEP goals, and (c) participation in the normal routines of the school day.

Finally, satisfaction levels of participating grade-level and content-area teachers in the SCIP schools were rated by a written survey. More than 90 percent of the teachers responded. Support by these teachers for the inclusion of children with severe disabilities in grade-level and content-area classes in their neighborhood schools was overwhelmingLY positive. For example, 89 percent of responding elementary teachers indicated that they believed it was appropriate for students with severe disabilities to participate as a member of their class. Ninety-one percent indicated that the student with severe disabilities benefited from participation in grade-level classes. While 92 percent believed that the other students benefited from the participation of students with severe disabilities in their class, EightY-five percent indicated that they would be willing to continue to serve students with severe disabilities in their class. Similar results were reported for teachers serving high school age students.[19]

These evaluation data suggest that inclusive neighborhood school programs can be effective in meeting the social and adaptive behavior needs of students with severe disabilities. Such programs can also facilitate regular and frequent positive interactions between students with and without disabilities. Staff in these schools developed positive attitudes about children with severe disabilities and generally believed that the advantages of these programs outweighed the potential disadvantages.

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[19] Hardman, M.L., & McDonnell, J. (1989). The Community-Based Transition Inservice Training Project: Final Report. Salt Lake City, UT: Department of Special Education, University of Utah.

The success of the SCIP project was enhanced by a number of factors, including: (a) strong administrative support for the implementation of inclusive neighborhood school programs at the district and building levels, (b) availability of on-going training and technical assistance to professionals working in model demonstration sites, (c) the availability of release time for teachers to plan and develop appropriate inclusion programs for each student with severe disabilities within the school, and (d) a strong commitment by professionals in each building to meeting the educational and social needs of all of the students in the school.

Inclusion of Students with Mild Disabilities: The Beehive Elementary School Project

Under the sponsorship of the Utah State Office of Education, another grant project of the Department of Special Education at the University of Utah assessed the effectiveness of an experimental inclusion model for students with mild disabilities at Beehive Elementary School in Granite School District. The experimental model can be broadly characterized as a collaborative consultation model that provides services in mainstream classroom settings to special education students who can be appropriately supported through the use of paraprofessionals as instructional assistants.

During the 1991-92 and 1992-93 school years, nearly all special education students in grades 4-6 received most, if not all, of their instructional support services in regular classrooms by paraprofessionals supervised by a special educator. While classroom teachers were directly responsible for the planning and delivery of curriculum and instruction, paraprofessionals gave supplementary assistance through one-on-one or small group interactions in the back of mainstream classrooms. Service delivery was coordinated by a single special education teacher acting as a consultant who met regularly with classroom teachers. Throughout the instructional intervention, decisions regarding student placement utilized cross-grade grouping opportunities. Achievement measures were outcome-based.

Cross-grade grouping and outcome-based education

All students in grades 4, 5, and 6, including special education students, were placed in math instructional groups based on ability level. Students moved from group to group based upon mastery of math concepts. Hence, a sixth grade student who had not mastered a specific concept (e.g., borrowing in double-digit subtraction) might have been placed with fourth, fifth, or sixth grade students who also had not mastered that concept. To facilitate cross-grade grouping, teachers agreed to schedule math instruction at a specific time during the day. Teachers determined initial instructional placements through a group placement test at the beginning of the academic school year. Students were regrouped every three weeks, according to their mastery of the math concept. Students had to meet an 80 percent mastery criterion in order to move to the next concept. If the mastery criterion was not met, students received additional instruction and drill. If a student failed to meet the criterion at the end of two testing periods (six weeks), the student was referred to special education for additional, intensive intervention in a pull-out setting. In the course of the year, only a small number of students received pull-out special educational services.

In reading, all upper-grade students were grouped on the basis of an individual reading fluency test as well as on vocabulary and comprehension tests. Although the groups were not reshuffled every three weeks, students were regrouped during the year if the regular and special educators determined it to be necessary. As in the case of math instruction, all teachers agreed to schedule reading instruction at the same time during the day.

Both formal and informal collaboration between the classroom teacher and the special education consultant continued throughout the school year. Formal collaboration occurred every three weeks when the special education consultant met individually with fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classroom teachers to rearrange student groups for math instruction. Informal collaboration occurred as teachers identified students needing additional services or changes in student programs. The special education teacher was accessible to the regular educators on an "as needed" basis. Her primary role was to train and supervise the paraprofessionals that were actually instructing identified students with disabilities in mainstream classrooms and in pull-out settings. Occasionally, the special educator herself would instruct special education students in pull-out settings.

Evaluation Procedure and Results

Evaluation of the project was conducted during the 1992-93 school year. The evaluation was designed to: (1) assess the degree of teacher satisfaction with the service delivery model, (2) assess the impact of the service delivery on student performance in reading and arithmetic, (3) assess the number of teacher referrals of students for special education evaluation and services, and (4) generate specific recommendations regarding the implementation of a resource/consultant "pull-in" service delivery model that utilizes paraprofessionals in mainstream classroom settings.

A comparison school was selected based on comparable student and geographic demographics. In both settings, the evaluation focused on: (1) teacher attitudes toward shared responsibility in providing services to students with disabilities, (2) teacher preference of service delivery models, (3) student performance on criterion-referenced tests for reading (word recognition) and math, and (4) the numbers of students referred for special education services.

A validated survey instrument was used to assess teacher attitudes. Teacher responses were statistically analyzed to determine if significant differences between schools existed. Similarly, teachers' preferences for service delivery models were assessed using a simple survey that described two instructional models: a traditional one in which educational instruction and support is provided in segregated settings by specialists, and an experimental one in which the instruction and support is provided in inclusive settings by generalists with help from specialists. Teachers simply marked which model they would prefer to implement in their school. In addition, a focus group interview was conducted with six teachers from Beehive Elementary School who were randomly selected to share their insights on the model.

Criterion-referenced tests developed by the Utah State Office of Education were used to assess student performance in reading and math. Student scores were analyzed statistically to determine if there were significant differences in student performance between the two schools. Finally, the number of students referred for special education was obtained from both schools to determine if the experimental model was effective in reducing the number of referrals.

Teacher attitudes and preferences. Teachers at the comparison site gave significantly higher ratings to four items on the attitude survey than did teachers at the experimental school. Upon reflection, the fact that teachers at the comparison site were generally optimistic and perhaps idealistic regarding shared responsibility for students with special needs was less surprising than at first. Beehive teachers, who had experienced the realities of shared responsibility, were less optimistic and evidently did not see collaborative consultation in mainstreaming settings as a panacea. Yet, despite this, nearly 75 percent of the teachers at Beehive indicated they preferred the experimental approach currently being implemented in their school while only 25 percent preferred a traditional, pull-out model. In contrast, and despite the fact that teacher responses at the comparison site reflected a positive attitude towards shared responsibility, nearly half of the comparison-site faculty indicated they preferred a traditional, pull-out service delivery model for meeting the needs of students eligible for special education. These results may suggest that while the teachers at the project site did not perceive a collaborative approach as a cure-all, they recognized its utility more than did the teachers at the comparison site.

Beehive teachers who participated in the focus group were generally positive in their comments during the focus group session. Time for teachers to communicate with one another appeared to be the most important factor in the implementation of the experimental model. Also, the teachers wanted to be fully informed of specific program objectives as well as involved in decision making. Additionally, they stressed that procedures for using paraprofessionals must be clearly articulated throughout the program. This includes indicating which students will have access to instructional support as well as when, where, and how paraprofessionals will provide services. Teachers indicated that providing services in the classroom resulted in greater curricular continuity. All students were responsible for the same work and received the same instruction in the mainstream classroom whereas the instruction they obtained in resource settings was not always consistent or congruent with the mainstream setting. Similarly, the collaborative approach appeared to have created a greater sense of shared accountability and community because teachers made more opportunities to discuss issues with each other. Furthermore, teachers felt they had greater access to specialized support staff such as the special education consultant and school psychologist.

Student outcomes and referral rates. The statistical analysis of test scores revealed that first and fourth graders at Beehive Elementary School scored significantly higher than their peers in the comparison school on both criterion-referenced tests for reading and math. The experimental model at Beehive, however, had been limited to fourth through sixth graders. The scores for grades other than first and fourth grade in both reading and math did not reveal significant differences between the two schools. Overall, these results would seem to suggest that the experimental model was no more but no less effective than traditional, segregated "pull-out" programs of service delivery. In some ways, however, it may have been more effective because, even though the results on the attitudinal survey suggested teachers involved with the Beehive model did not feel this approach would eliminate the need for resource rooms, the number of referrals for special education evaluation dropped. In contrast, the number of referrals at the comparison school increased.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The evaluation of the Beehive Model concluded that it was a viable alternative to providing services to students with mild disabilities in segregated settings by special education teachers. Furthermore, the implementation of cross-grade grouping, outcome-based placement decisions generally appeared to be effective for the students involved. Student performance did not diminish, and teachers appeared to approve of the model. The evaluation concluded that in significant measure the success at Beehive was attributable to strong administrative and staff support, as well as to a competent special educator with administrative and interpersonal skills. Finally, the report identified the importance of ongoing communication among teachers and staff and the need for specific allocations of time for consultation and dialogue.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

As can be noted from the two projects above, the primary argument for inclusion is not that purely "academic" achievement in regular education curriculum areas rises; in the first study other measures of educational progress were considered more important, and in the second, academic achievement in reading and math did not change significantly. These results are consistent with others nationally. Instead, the argument for inclusion is a broader educational and socio-cultural one based on the fact that exclusion of students with disabilities from regular classroom settings ultimately diminishes their acceptance by society and retards their adaptation to generally accepted social mores and expectations.

These two projects are part of a larger and growing body of work that identifies the prerequisites of successful inclusion. Consensus exists that an inclusion model is easier to accept philosophically than to implement successfully in school districts and individual school buildings. One of the major concerns is that administrators will adopt, wholesale, an inclusive delivery system in place of a system that bases placements on the individual needs of students.[20] Current federal special education law requires school districts to determine for students on an individualized basis where an appropriate education can be delivered. The balance between appropriate special educational services and a preference for mainstream environments is captured by the concept that students should be placed in the least restrictive environment appropriate to their needs. If inclusive settings are truly to constitute the least restrictive environment appropriate, much must be done to assure that mainstream classrooms can and do deliver effective instruction to both students with disabilities and their non-disabled peers.

Inclusion depends for its success on a variety of support services. Yet some educators and inclusion advocates are pressing for inclusion without assuring the availability of all the elements needed for success. If the regular curriculum is to be modified and adapted to serve the individual needs of all students with disabilities, then the regular teacher must have the following:

1) a genuine belief in, and commitment to, the desirability of meshing regular and special education to serve the needs of students with disabilities;

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[20] Critics of the current system observe that all too frequently it too does not base placements on the individual needs of students.

2) meaningful access to a competent special educator to help design curriculum modifications, to co-teach, and to help train and supervise aides in the classroom;
3) the availability of paid or unpaid, full-time or part-time paraprofessional aides and student tutors, as needed;
4) professional training in the use of aides and student tutors;
5) meaningful access to related services personnel, such as speech pathologists, occupational therapists, physical therapists, psychologists, social workers, rehabilitation counselors, etc.
6) classroom space and a classroom layout suitable for simultaneous teaching activities;
7) training in the use of specialized behavior management techniques and access to a behavioral specialist, as needed;
8) time to engage in collaborative planning efforts; and
9) cooperation and support from the building administrator, parents of regular education students in the classroom, and the community at large.

Among the supplementary issues that should be anticipated in serving students with severe disabilities in regular classrooms are how to address personal support issues (such as mobility and toileting needs), medical needs, parental anxieties, behavioral concerns (real or imagined), and how to provide appropriate assistive technology devices (such as augmentative communication devices). These same issues can arise with respect to students with sensory and physical disabilities who do not have cognitive impairments. School personnel must understand the right of students with disabilities to individualized modifications within the school setting so that students with disabilities are not discriminated against on the basis of their disabilities.[21]

For successful inclusion, not only the regular educator but also the special educator must be retrained. In particular, the special educator must be trained more extensively as a classroom assessment specialist, a supervisor, a facilitator and collaborator, and a program evaluator. In addition, the special educator must be willing to relinquish more of the responsibility for the actual instruction of children with disabilities.[22]

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[21] Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 requires such modifications for students with disabilities, and many schools have worked to eliminate vestiges of unwarranted past discrimination.

[22] Many special educators report that their role under some forms of mandated "inclusion" too easily becomes one of a teacher's aide rather than a co-teacher; a good inclusion model will assure that regular educators do not under-utilize the skills of special educators in regular classrooms.

Unfortunately, most of the pressure for inclusion has come from special education rather than regular education;[23] yet the model depends on the commitment of regular education for its success. Teachers who are coerced into an inclusive delivery system have many opportunities to undermine its success. In particular, one concern of parents and educators is that in response to the demand to adapt the curriculum to meet the needs of students with learning problems, ill-prepared or uncommitted regular teachers will "dumb down" the classroom expectations and teach to those with lower academic skills. Other regular educators and parents express concern that the needs and behaviors of some students with disabilities will be unduly disruptive to regular education students. Although both concerns can materialize, neither is part of the special education vision for inclusive classrooms with adequate support services. Nonetheless, if responsibility is shifted to regular educators against their will, without joint ownership and accountability by both regular and special educators and without the necessary classroom supports, the concerns will become real. For inclusion to succeed, regular education must decide that inclusion is in its best interest as well as that of students with disabilities.

An additional hurdle to effective inclusive classrooms and schools is the disagreement within the special education community itself. Advocates for special education students with significant learning disabilities, hearing impairments, and emotional disturbances are concerned that schools adopting an inclusion model will fail to consider whether these students' instructional needs can be better met through more intensive and specialized services than can be delivered effectively in regular classrooms.[24] For many of these students, inclusion was their initial experience in the public schools. For some it did not work because the school did not acknowledge that they needed completely different curriculum methods and materials, not just adaptations of the existing materials and expectations. The Learning Disability Association of America (LDA) has taken the position that "the regular education classroom is not the appropriate placement for a number of students with learning disabilities who may need alternative instructional environments, teaching strategies, and/or materials that cannot or will not be provided within the context of a regular classroom placement."[25] The deaf community and educators for the deaf have taken a similar position, expressing concern about the "isolation from communication access and socialization which occurs when hearing impaired students are educated in their neighborhood schools."[26] To gain the cooperation and support of these groups, school districts will have to assure them that an inclusion model does not preclude more intensive and specialized services than are typically available in a regular classroom with paraprofessionals and related service personnel. The grant projects reported in this chapter were not evaluating programs for students with moderate to profound hearing impairments, serious emotional disturbances, or severe learning disabilities. For these students more research data on effective programming is needed, both within the state and nationally. Meanwhile, their advocates continue to believe that instruction from a special educator may still be paramount in some cases.

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[23] A notable exception to this statement is the recent position taken by the National Association of State Boards of Education in its report, Winners All (1992), which issues a call for inclusion.

[24] *See, e.g.*, Huefner, D.S. (1994). The Mainstreaming Cases: Tensions and Trends for School Administrators. Educational Administration Quarterly, 30, 27-55.

[25] LDA position paper on full inclusion of all students with learning disabilities in the regular education classroom (1993, March/April). LDA Newsbriefs, 1.

Another challenge is to provide university pre-service programs that prepare regular and special education teachers for the diversity of student needs that awaits them. Models of inclusive service delivery are not easily implemented when teacher preparation programs do not teach educators how to collaborate to deliver services and do not model the interaction and shared responsibility of administrators, school psychologists, and regular and special educators that is necessary for inclusion to work. Much work in transdisciplinary service delivery remains to be done at the university level.

A related challenge is to continue to better prepare health, human service, and education agencies to collaborate effectively in order to deliver services to students with severe disabilities. The education system cannot and should not be expected, alone, to meet the health, social service, and educational needs of students with severe disabilities. Ongoing interagency collaboration efforts within Utah show promise of combining financial and human resources to serve students with multiple needs[27] thereby relieving some of the burden on the school system and some of the fragmented service delivery in the lives of these children.

A final challenge to inclusion is to assure that administrators make decisions to include students with disabilities as regular classroom members for student-centered reasons. Sometimes administrators adopt an inclusion model because they believe it will save them money or be more administratively convenient than to hire more special educators and provide a continuum of placement options. As may be apparent from the list of elements necessary for the success of an inclusion model, however, the costs are not likely to be less than they are under a model providing a continuum of placement options. The same array of services is necessary; they are simply delivered for the most part in mainstream settings with a shift in the primary role of the special educator from teacher to manager and with greater reliance on the use of paraprofessionals.

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[26] National Ass'n of State Directors of Special Education (1992, Sept.). Position statement by Dr. John George, Director of the Deaf Education Initiative, NASDSE, Liaison Bulletin, 18, 7.

[27] The "Coordinated Services for At Risk Children and Youth Act," Utah Code, 63-75-2 et seq., provides legislative sanction and support for this effort and other efforts to serve a broader group of students considered at risk.

So, what is the future of inclusion? The inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms and schools is congruent in many ways with current general education reforms that are focusing on outcome-based education, collaboration, parent involvement, access to community resources, and individualization to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse population of students--culturally, ethnically, and linguistically. One can be cautiously optimistic about its purposes and its potential outcomes. Yet there is a continuing need for more research and evaluation of inclusion models. This much we know: inclusion models show promise of enhancing educational progress for many students with disabilities. Yet unsupported or improperly supported inclusion or inflexible full inclusion of all students regardless of individual needs, could take us back to the days when most students with disabilities were in regular classrooms without the special instruction and related services that they needed to learn. This we also know: educators and legislators should ensure that all inclusion models for students with disabilities, and related reform efforts, are carefully designed, systematically implemented, regularly monitored, empirically validated, and rigorously evaluated for the efficacy of student outcomes. Furthermore, at a minimum, the introduction of inclusive delivery systems must include staff acceptance and ongoing staff training, administrative leadership, support services, and commitments of time for planning and collaboration.

CHAPTER FIVE

EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY: MERCHANTS OF CHANGE

By: Patrick Galvin[1]

HIGHLIGHTS

- Utah's legislature, colleges, universities, businesses and public schools have invested approximately 120 million dollars in educational technology between the years 1990-91 and 1992-93.
- During those same years, more than 900 ETI partnerships were formed to support the promotion and development of technology in Utah's schools.
- On the average, students in elementary schools had equal assess to educational partnerships regardless of whether they lived in rural or urban/suburban schools.
- Urban/suburban (Wasatch Front) junior and senior high schools had more than 5 times the number of partnerships than their rural counterparts.
- On the average, the per pupil revenues raised through these partnerships were greater in rural schools than they were in urban/suburban schools.
- Levels of support from business-school partnerships are not strongly related to changes in a school's average statewide assessment score.
- Current accounts for ETI money raise questions how best to monitor the influx of private donations for public education.
- ETI funding is likely to shift from investments in computer hardware and software to support for in-service and expanded administrative uses.
- The national policy environment will provide strong leadership and support for the development of a National Information Highway, which John Sculley describes as a 3.2 trillion dollar market.
- The future of computer-based technologies as they will effect public education is uncertain, but it is not likely that the development of such a reform movement will disappear nor is it likely to be cheap.

Governor Leavitt's vision of education, as described in his speech, Gearing Up With Technology: A Centennial Challenge For Educators (1993), is predicated upon "the innovative use of technological advancements, harnessing and merging the enormous capabilities of computers, telephones, television and satellites" (1993, pp.1-2). His vision, like that of many governors around the country, challenges educators "to make education an activity that is not bound by buildings, place or space . . . [to make] technology-delivered education a part of every student's educational experience" (1993, pp. 5-6). In such an environment students might "never or at least rarely visit their campuses," and they might "take a class from a University of Utah professor, or one from Southern Utah, Harvard, Stanford, Moscow or Beijing" (1993, p.4).

The notion of utilizing

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[1] Dr. Hal Robins, Research Specialist at Utah's Education Office, contributed significantly to this chapter, especially with his assistance on the section describing Utah's future directions in educational technology.

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educational technology as a means by which to reform Utah's public schools was not an original idea of by Governor Leavitt. Indeed, it has a long pedigree going back at least to the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which, in response to the launch of the Russian Sputnik, asserted that "the defense of this Nation depends upon the mastery of modern techniques developed from complex scientific principles." Such language is not unlike that used in 1983, by the authors of A Nation at Risk. By 1988, the ideas of educational technology, science, productivity, and economic viability had found their way into Utah's Strategic Educational Plan, A Shift in Focus, and by 1989 the same language can be found in Governor Bangerter's Blueprint for Utah's Economic Future.

In the Spring of 1990, Utah's Legislature passed a law known as the Educational Technology Initiative (H.B. 498). A primary goal of this legislation was to improve student learning and promote the economic welfare of the State. In the language of Utah's Strategic Plan, the purpose of the legislation was to provide Utahns a "world class" education that would enable Utah's businesses to compete in the global economy. Computer technology was identified as the fundamental means of pursuing these goals. To fund the proposal, a partnership that included the state's legislature, colleges, universities, public schools, and businesses was formed to raise revenues for the purchase of educational technology and, not incidentally, in order to more directly link public education with economic development. Language from the legislation makes this point clear: "the focus [of the ETI legislation should be to develop] public and private funding on critical education areas that directly support student achievement and economic development. The role of partnerships is especially significant in the last two goals" (H.B. 468, Section 1 e).

Utah's educators, business people and legislators have made a serious effort to reform public education through the technology initiative. To achieve the economic and social goals of the strategic plans noted above, it was recommended that educators be given the modern tools to prepare students for the "information age." This is to say, as President Lyndon Johnson did in 1965, that "We cannot solve the problems of the nuclear age with horse and buggy learning."

Investment in educational technology and innovations is not new to the reform movement of the 1990s. Snider (1992) notes that from the 1950s to the late 1960s, just after the Russian Sputnik success, the United States spent billions of dollars on all types of educational innovations. Snider further describes the history of technology and education as one that has had little impact on the day-to-day instruction in classrooms; efforts in the 1960s to promote distance education, introduce computer technologies and information systems all met with spotty results.

Despite years of notable failure, the current technological revolution, brought primarily by the computation power of personal computers, will not be so quickly abandoned. The sheer power of the computer and its implications for future labor markets are some of the reasons why Snider believes that the technological revolution will be widely adopted and integrated into schools as well as society at large.

Snider is not alone in this view. A review of documents based in the ERIC system reveals hundreds of articles that favorably view computer technologies as a way of reforming public education. So pervasive is the assumption that these innovative technologies are capable of significant organizational reform that it suggests that many educators view the adoption of computer technologies as a reform movement in and of itself.

While past literature describing computer-based innovations has focused primarily on the instructional problems in the classroom, the more current literature focuses on issues of in-service to facilitate adoption, administrative applications of computer technologies, equity issues related to access, educational impact, and accountability. These references suggest a growing realization of the complexities with regard to the adoption and utilization of such innovations within the school environment.

In this chapter the concerns identified in the literature are used to guide the discussion and analysis of Utah's Educational Technology Initiative. The discussion begins by focusing on the promotion of the educational partnerships supporting the development of the Educational Technology Initiative in Utah. Where other research has addressed the use of computer-based technologies in Utah, the discussion here focuses on the access by schools to the resources and opportunities associated with educational partnerships. Next, keeping with the growing concern expressed in the literature about the impact of such investments on achievement, an analysis of the relationship between business investments supporting school reform through Utah's ETI program and school performance on the statewide achievement tests is examined. The use of private money to support public work always raises questions of accountability, and these issues are addressed in the final analysis of this section.

After the analysis of what has happened in Utah with regard to access, equity, impact and accountability, the discussion turns to emerging practices and trends supporting Utah's ETI program. Specifically, attention is drawn to current legislative efforts to support in-service and administrative uses of computer-based technological innovations.

The final section of this chapter draws attention to the national environment in which Utah policy is formed. Notable events are occurring at the national level, which will have important implications for Utah's efforts to develop a "super-digital highway." The chapter concludes with a summary and policy comments.

ACCESS TO EDUCATIONAL PARTNERSHIPS: OPPORTUNITIES AND EQUITY

Since the inception of the ETI legislation, the partnership has raised over 120 million dollars in support of the initiative. The ETI 1992-93 Year End Report (ETI Project Office, 1993) indicates that legislative funds for that initiative were about one-third of the total contributions. Legislative funds have been distributed using a 75/25 split: 25% of the legislative funds were distributed evenly to Utah's 40 school district: 75% of the money was distributed on a per pupil basis. The idea was to ensure small and rural schools a funding base sufficient to operate effectively. Table 5.1 breaks down the contributions by the business, university, and legislative sectors.

Table 5.1
Utah State ETI Funding, 1990 to 1993

Fund Type	Dollar Amount	Percentage
Legislative Funds	$39,000,000	32.3%
District/College Contributions	$41,776,774	34.6%
Vendor Discount	$22,715,127	18.8%
Business Community Donation	$17,313,291	14.3%
TOTAL	$120,805,192	100.0%

Source: Dr. Dahn, ETI Project Office, State of Utah, Legislative Report, 1993-94 School Year

The infrastructure necessary to support the dissemination and adoption of computer technologies in public education requires, according to Utah's Strategic Plans, cooperation between business and public schools. Utah's ETI legislation specifically identified the collaboration of business and schools as a fundamental component of the initiative. However, where initially the ETI legislation provided regulation to ensure the equitable distribution of resources raised through business-school partnerships, each successive re-authorization of the legislation required less and less equalization. Equal access is an issues examined in this paper, justified in part because of the lack of regulation governing the distribution of opportunities and resources generated through Utah's ETI legislation.

Issues with regard to access and equity are examined using data collected as part of the ETI evaluation conducted by the Byrl Buck Institute, San Francisco, California. School representatives were asked, as part of this evaluation, to account for the number and character of donations provided by the business community supporting the ETI initiative Utah State during a three year period: 1990-91 till the 1992-93 school years.[2] These data provide the empirical base by which to compare issues of access among different types of schools (elementary, Junior/middle, and high schools), as well as by location and wealth factors.

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[2] The data for these counts were collected as part of the ETI evaluation conducted by Burl Buck Institute during the Fall of 1993 for Utah's Legislator. These data are used with permission.

Number of Partnerships

Of Utah's 645 schools surveyed, 535 returned the questionnaire: an 83% return rate. Of the 535 schools returning the survey, 231 (or 43.2% of the total number) indicated that one or more ETI related partnerships had been organized with one or more of the business types identified below. This is to say 56.3% of Utah's schools have not formed technological partnerships with businesses in their communities.

Table 5.2
Number of Technologically Related Partnerships
Utah's Public Schools

Type of Partnerships		Number	Percentage
A)	National Technological	231	24.7%
B)	National not Technological	389	41.6%
C)	Local Business	268	28.7%
D)	Other Partnerships	47	5.0%
TOTAL		935	100.0%

Source: 1993 Legislative Evaluation, Novato, CA: Beryl Buck Institute for Education, Dr. Mergendoller, Project Director.

Used with permission: Dr. Vicky Dahn, ETI Project Director, Utah State Office of Education.

Table 5.2 provides a breakdown of the number of partnerships identified as those related to Utah's ETI initiative.[3] In the last three years 935 education technology partnerships have been identified by school administrators to be related to the ETI initiative. Relatively few of these partnerships involve national businesses whose primary function is related to technology (24.7%), while 41.6% involve national business whose primary function is not technological in character. The remaining 33.7% involve local business or some combination there-of.

There are a number of ways by which access to these opportunities can be assessed. For example, if income or wealth factors were available at the school level one could assess whether access to these opportunities was related to the wealth of the school. This is a classic equity concern because of the long standing effort of state finance plans to break the systematic relationship between school wealth factors and access to educational opportunities. Unfortunately, income and wealth data is not readily available for individual schools, consequently such an analysis is not possible. Aggregation of these data to the district level allows for comparisons between districts which, while not as precise as school level comparisons, provides a reference for wealth related comparisons. The results of such an analysis are discussed later in the paper.

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[3] The four categories were:

A) National Or Statewide Technology Companies;
B) National Or Statewide Companies That Are Not Primarily Technology Companies;
C) Local Businesses That Do Not Sell Goods Or Services Outside The School District;
D) Other Types Of Partnerships Not Covered In The First Three Categories.

Another fundamental concern is whether access to partnership opportunities are related to the geographic location of schools. Just as Utah's school finance plan seeks to break any relationship between the wealth of a district and access to educational opportunities so to does it seek to eliminate any relationship between the geographic location of a district and access to educational opportunities. In the following section, an analysis of access in terms of geography is examined.

The analysis divides schools into two geographic regions: those identified as part of districts along the Wasatch Front and those not located along the Wasatch Front.[4] Schools identified in districts along the Wasatch Front are identified as "urban" while the remaining number of districts are identified as "rural." For sake of comparability the schools are further broken down by their organizational type. Three types are compared: 1) Elementary Schools; 2) Junior and Middle Schools; 3) High Schools.[5] Table 5.3 provides a descriptive comparison of the average number of partnerships when controls for organizational type and location are made.

Table 5.3
Total Average Number of Partnerships
Comparing Location by Type (N cases)

School Type	Rural	Urban	Statistical Difference
Elementary	1.25 (102)	1.36 (202)	0.993
Junior/Middle	0.39 (23)	2.59 (49)	0.019
High School	1.78 (28)	10.96 (28)	0.001

Source: 1993 Legislative Evaluation, Novato, CA: Beryl Buck Institute for Education, Dr. Mergendoller, Project Director.

Used with permission: Dr. Vicky Dahn, ETI Project Director, Utah State Office of Education.

The results of the analysis indicate that there is virtually no difference for rural and urban elementary schools, which on the average operate with about 1.3 partnerships per school, regardless of location. In elementary schools it appears that access to the opportunities available through educational partnerships is not related to location. Comparisons for junior/middle and high schools reveal different results, however. In both cases schools in urban areas have a much greater incidence of school-business partnerships than their counterparts in rural areas.

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[4] The phrase "Wasatch Front" is used by a number of state agencies to categorize those areas of the state along the western front of the Wasatch Mountain Range. At this point, standard and discreet boundaries of this area have not been defined. In this chapter, "Wasatch Front" is used in reference to the following school districts: Weber, Ogden, Davis, Salt Lake City, Granite, Murray, Jordan, Alpine, Provo, and Nebo.

[5] While it is true that some schools are K-12 or K-10 or some other organizational arrangement, these differences exist in both rural and urban schools and the error is not serious to the analysis presented in this paper.

In as much as access to the opportunities associated with educational partnerships represent a significant and important set of educational opportunities, then the above results suggest that more attention to equalizing these opportunities will be necessary to maintain current standards of school equity in the state of Utah. However, the number of partnerships organized by a school does not in itself constitute a significant opportunity. One way to assess whether these arrangements significantly affect a school's opportunity is to calculate the fiscal contribution of the partnerships. If the fiscal resources raised as a result of educational partnerships are significantly and systematically related to the location of schools, then the equity concern raised in this section would appear to be that much more important.

Financial Contribution of Educational Partnerships

Table 5.4 provides the comparison of per pupil estimates of revenues raised through school-business partnerships. These estimates, calculated by information provided by school representatives responding to questions on the same survey described above, include consideration of training, in-service and in-kind contributions as well as cash donations by business to schools. The results show that the per pupil contributions for rural elementary, junior/middle and high schools are significantly higher than those for urban schools. Thus, while it appears that urban junior/middle and urban high schools are able to attract more partnerships than their rural counterparts, the net financial impact of such arrangements favors rural students.

Table 5.4
Total Per Pupil Avg. Revenues
Raised by ETI Partnerships (N cases)

Schl Type	Rural	Urban	Statistical Significance
Elementary	$127 (71)	$75 (125)	0.000
Junior/Middle	$137 (15)	$64 (37)	0.000
High School	$183 (20)	$49 (20)	0.000

Source: 1993 Legislative Evaluation, Novato, CA: Beryl Buck Institute for Education, Dr. Mergendoller, Project Director.

Used with permission: Dr. Vicky Dahn, ETI Project Director, Utah State Office of Education.

The explanation for per pupil revenue differences based on geographic location is most readily explained by differences in enrollments. In the case of high schools, for example, schools in both rural and urban settings raised about the same level of support in absolute dollars, but the per pupil differences are substantial because of the enrollment differences. In contrast, urban elementary schools raise much more money than rural elementary schools but when these revenue differences are divided by the number of students served rural students have more than twice the revenue available compared to students in urban schools (Wasatch Front).

These expenditures variations violate the equity principles guiding Utah's school finance plan, which states that access to educational resources should not be systematically related to the geographic circumstances of students. The surprising finding, however, considering the availability of education partnerships to schools in urban areas, is that students in urban and not rural schools are those who are monetarily at the disadvantage as a result of these arrangements.

School District Wealth and the Financial Contributions of Educational Partnerships

The purpose of this analysis is to assess the degree to which the wealth of a district is related to the number of partnerships and the dollar contribution of the partners to schools. School responses for both the number of partnerships and dollar contribution of the partnerships were aggregated by their district affiliation. District measures of wealth, presented in Table 5.5, were calculated by dividing the "Assessed Valuation" of each district by the total student population (ADM). These figures were then ranked into one of four groups. The groups of schools with the lowest assessed valuation per pupil are in the first group, where valuations range from $56,983 to $89,238 per pupil. In this category, schools had an average of 1.52 partnerships and received, on the average, $38.18 per pupil through those partnerships (notice that these comparisons do not distinguish between rural and urban schools).

Table 5.5
Comparison of Schools by District Assessed Valuation Per Pupil

		Number of Partnerships			Dollars Per Pupil		
Assessed Valuation Per Pupil		Mean	Std Dev	Cases	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
Lowest	($56,983 - $89,238)	1.52	3.28	107	$38.2	$74.7	91
Low	($89,239 - $101,179)	2.73	10.53	149	$35.6	$120.0	134
High	($101,179 - $142,765)	2.11	5.07	93	$55.9	$192.5	87
Highest	($142,765 - $703,710)	1.52	3.49	111	$97.1	$223.7	92
State Avg.		2.03	6.83	460	$54.6	$160.6	404

Source: 1993 Legislative Evaluation, Novato, CA: Beryl Buck Institute for Education, Dr. Mergendoller, Project Director.

Used with permission: Dr. Vicky Dahn, ETI Project Director, Utah State Office of Education.

The results of the analysis indicate that there is not a significant difference in the number of partnerships between these groups. The reader will certainly note differences in the average number of partnerships among wealth categories, but the internal variation within these groups is so large that one cannot say with any statistical certainty that the differences represent truly different populations. The same can be said for the differences for revenues raised by the partnerships (dollars per pupil), with the exception for the districts in the very wealthy districts. In those districts it appears that schools are able to garner considerably more support than schools in less wealthy districts, and these differences are statistically significant. Such a finding violates the principle of equity outlined in this section.

The concern about variations in access and levels of support are predicated on assumptions that the increased marginal support provided by technological partnerships is related to changes in student achievement. Indeed, in specific instances, the State Education Office, the Office of Economic and Community Development, school districts, and individual businesses will make claims about the academic impact of educational partnerships. In the following section such an assumption is examined.

Effectiveness: Educational Partnership and School Achievement

The premise underlying Utah's ETI initiative is that increased support for technological change will facilitate student learning. Success can be described by many measures but it seems reasonable to think that by whatever other measures success is compared, business and the public will be suspicious if there are not corresponding changes in the achievement on the statewide assessment program. Utah's statewide assessment program uses a standardized achievement test to assess the achievement of the state's 5th, 8th and 11th grade students. Thus, one can ask, "What is the relationship between the level of fiscal support provided through the ETI partnerships and student achievement?"

To examine this question school based changes in scores in each of the content areas were calculated. This involved subtracting the schools score in 1990 from that score received in 1992: thus if the school's score had improved the result was positive, if the school's score had declined the score was negative. Use of the change scores is important here because it overcomes making comparisons between good and bad schools per se. The question explored here is not whether access and level of support through ETI related partnerships is positively related to high statewide assessment scores but rather whether access and level of ETI support are positively related to increase in the SAT scores for schools.

Generally, the results of the analysis provide a mixed set of messages. The strongest positive correlation, for example, is between high school math scores (r = 0.257). This correlation, while not strong, suggests that the more financial resources raised through ETI partnerships the greater the change in high school math scores. A similar finding is evident for junior high and middle schools and changes in the statewide assessment math scores.

Table 5.6
Correlation Table Comparing Per Pupil Revenues
with Change Scores for the Statewide Assessment Program (1990 to 1992)

	Elementary (188)	Jr./Middle (48)	Senior (40)
MATH9092	-0.099	0.219	0.257
	P= .087	P= .068	P= .055
READ9092	-0.154	0.1766	-0.257
	P= .017	P= .115	P= .055
ENGR9092	-0.156	-0.048	-0.2178
	P= .016	P= .373	P= .089
SCIR9092	-0.136	0.076	-0.127
	P= .031	P= .304	P= .217
SOCR9092	-0.011	-0.097	-0.045
	P= .442	P= .256	P= .393
BBTR9092	-0.209	0.129	-0.135
	P= .002	P= .191	P= .202

Source 1993 Legislative Evaluation, Novato, CA: Beryl Buck Institute for Education, Dr. Mergendoller, Project Director and Utah Statewide Assessement: General Report, 1993, Utah State Office of Education.

Used with permission: Dr. Vicky Dahn, ETI Project Director, Utah State Office of Education.

The majority of scores, however, were either negatively correlated or statistically insignificant, which is to say that the evidence does not support the premise that increased levels of support for ETI partnerships is associated with improved performance. Of course there may be other benefits not captured by using statewide assessment scores. Future studies can document and clarify such findings, and perhaps explain why the results of this analysis indicate such a inconsistent set of findings between increased levels of ETI support from the public sector and gains in the average level of school achievement.

The final analysis presented in this chapter focuses on the question of accountability. As noted in the literature, there is a growing concern about how state bureaucracies can account for these private funds. The concern expressed by Eyre (1986) and Valentine (1992) was that failure to provide a high level of accountability may negatively impact the ability of schools to solicit funds from business in the future.

Accountability and Organizational Structure

There are several reasons why issues of accountability will emerge central to the governance of technology initiative in the near future. First, the level of support provided by business is increasing with time. With increased spending, both the public and private contributors will want a clear account of how their funds were used. A second reason driving accountability issues has to do with the mix of public and private funds used to support the growth of technology and education. To the extent that the investment reaps rewards, questions about who has access to the benefits of such arrangements will become key points of debate. For example, say that business purchases the cabling necessary for linking schools with homes. As the market responds to these new opportunities the question of who owns the cable, and access to the home market through the educational cable, will undoubtedly emerge. If educators are uneasy with the current level of "advertising" used to support Channel One in public schools, one can imagine the discord associated with future use of cable network environments.

The issue of ownership within an educational partnership raises other issues related to accountability, specifically when so many actors are involved making contributions of various sorts it is difficult, if not impossible, to maintain good fiscal records of program transactions. The problem is obvious when one examines Utah's Educational Technology Initiative Project Year-End Report, 1992-93. That report estimates revenues of more than 120 million dollars since the 1990-91 school year (see Table 5.1 above). The table reporting how funds have been used, however, only accounts for slightly more than 50 million dollars of the funds (Table 5.7 provides the details of that section of the report).

Table 5.7
Year-End Expenditure Reports for ETI Funds

Exp. Type	1990-91	1991-92	1992-93	
Inservice	$726,466	$1,208,310	$2,105,684	
Software	$3,783,726	$3,545,745	$2,529,450	
Hardware	$13,213,178	$12,862,402	$10,203,433	Grand Total
TOTAL	$17,723,370	$17,616,457	$14,838,567	$50,178,394

Source: Dr. Dahn, ETI Project Office, State of Utah, Legislative Report, 1993-94 School Year

The problem here is one of record keeping. For example, in that same report, it is estimated that in the 1992-93 school year, business vendors, private contributions, district and college and other donations accounted for 18,746,273 dollars supporting the ETI program. Coupled with the 11 million dollar grant provided by the State Legislature the total investment was tallied as 29,746,273 dollars. Notice in Table 5.7, however, that the fiscal expenditure report accounts for only $14,838,567 dollars, just about half of the total revenues raised.

There are many possible explanations for these discrepancies, not the least of which is that vendors and other contributors overestimated their contribution to the ETI programs. For example, the 1992-93 Fund Report, Table 5.8, indicates that vender discounts account for 2,026,438 dollars with matching funds. Assume, for the sake of the account discrepancy identified above, that these "vendor discounts" are, at best, gestures of good will and do not represent a significant fiscal contribution in and of themselves. Similarly, assume that school district and college matching funds are primarily "in-kind" and are not matching dollars per se.

Table 5.8
1992-93 ETI Matching Funds Report

Legislative Funds	11,000,000
Vendor Discounts	2,026,438
Grants, donations from business	5,037,127
Private Contributions	1,995,954
District and College matching funds	9,686,754
Matching Sub Total	18,746,273
Grand Total	29,746,273

Source: Dr. Dahn, ETI Project Office, State of Utah, Legislative Report, 1993-94 School Year

The purpose of recognizing the differences in types of funds is to explain the accounting difference between revenues "raised" and "expended." Vender discounts, and district and college matching funds are most likely not hard cash provided to the ETI program (this is a generous assumption with regard to fiscal accounts being examined). Grants, business donations and private contributions would, on the other hand, appear to be real dollars supplementing and matching the funds provided by Utah's Legislature. When vendor discounts and district and college matching funds are subtracted from the 1992-93 expenditure accounts, the ETI project revenue record still accounts for 18,033,081 dollars, or 3,194,514 dollars more than those accounted for in the expenditure record for the 1992-93 school year.

This issue of accountability is not one specific to Utah's ETI program, problems of accountability are endemic with these types of partnerships. According to Peter Schmidt (1993) the accountability problem is explained by several factors including: a lack of expertise on the part of educators who are trying to purchase and utilize computer technology, a consequent reliance on vendors for purchase decisions, and the lack of centralized control necessary to maintain clear lines of fiscal accountability. There is an important point embedded in this observation. Where computer technology has been described as the tool necessary to "empower educators" through decentralization, questions of accountability and equity drive the system toward a more centralized, hierarchical order.

The issue is one of conflicting purposes. Where ETI legislation and Utah's Strategic Plan intend educational technology to be a means by which to promote local authority and autonomy, the same documents call for greater accountability and efficiency while maintaining equity goals as they are currently stated. If current practice is any evidence of the problems to be faced as the program and activities increase in size and intensity, these conflicting tensions may create a very unstable political environment in which the current organization of ETI operates.

Further, the tug of war between business and schools over the new educational markets has just begun. The involvement of business within the educational community raises fundamental questions about who has rights to the emerging "home" and "school" market available through technological networks. Considering the historical concern education has placed on equity issues, to say nothing about the legal obligations to such matters, concerns about how fairly these delivery systems will distribute the available opportunities will conflict with the profit priorities of business. More, the complex task of monitoring school-business transactions, and the high need for accountability necessary to maintain future commitments of support from business, may undermine current trends toward decentralized authority. . Centralized control and bureaucracies may not provide teachers with all the authority they need to do what is always best for the student, but without a high level of accountability the funding necessary to support student learning may not be available at all. School bureaucracies, for all their limitations, are able to maintain a level of accountability difficult to maintain in a highly decentralized system.

Summary Conclusion

Access to the opportunities and resources raised by school-business partnerships does not meet the principles of equity generally used to guide school finance in Utah. This definition states that students' access to opportunities should not be systematically related to either their financial or geographic circumstances. The 75/25 spilt of legislative funding does provide a fiscal base by which rural and small schools can operate but such a split does not necessarily equalize for wealth or need factors. In this paper, however, the primary focus was on the distribution of business contributions supporting the ETI initiative. The analysis of fiscal, time and in-kind donations of support from business suggests that a student's access to the benefits associated with educational technology partnerships depend very much on their location and, to a lesser, degree the wealth of their district. Student living in the very wealthiest districts have greater access to the opportunities associated with education technology partnerships, and further have more resources to support such activities. In the most fundamental way such circumstances violates the equalization goals of Utah's school finance plan.

UTAH'S FUTURE DIRECTION

Continued investment in Utah's technological infrastructure is likely to take a turn in direction in the near future. Where the past three years has seen investment in hardware and software, the question on the minds of educators and policy makers alike is the use of these computers. In this regard more attention and funding is likely to be directed toward the in- and pre-service training of teachers in the technological areas. Nagging questions about the impact of computer on instruction and learning are not likely to be resolved by increased spending on in-service. To the contrary, such investments, while widely acclaimed by educators rarely stand up to empirical analysis as cost-effective policies.

A new field of technological investment is likely to be in the area of educational administration, particularly as it is related to information management. A constant problem confronting the Utah State Office of Education and school districts, as well as universities/colleges, is the management of basic student information. Computer technologies provide a means by which to coordinate the activities of the numerous agencies interested in such data. Further, to the extent the administrators are trained to utilize the available data for administrative decision making, the potential for empirically basing some allocation and program decision is available.

Finally, in concert with the national scene, the Governor has proposed investing in the network infrastructure (the information highway). As Denis Newman (1992) points out, such a technological innovation does not necessarily mean that the whole structure of public education will change, as Governor Leavitt would have us envision. Rather than experiencing wholesale change, it seems more likely that educators, the public and business will integrate those aspects of the system that enable them to work more productively. Of course, as economists note, increases in productivity can be had by either maintaining current levels of investment (including the skill and time of workers) with corresponding increases in output, or by reducing levels of investment and maintaining existing levels of output. It is conceivable that the information highway could enable efficiencies in production without any observable effect on outcomes: rather the residual benefits from such investment would simply be absorbed by teachers and administrators in reduced workload. The following sections expand briefly on the introductory remarks made above.

Inservice

Like Utah, many states have invested heavily in the procurement of computer hardware, software and infrastructure. Utah's legislature has provided more than 40 million dollars to support the purchase of computer technologies in the State's schools. With these technologies in place there is increasing concern about providing the in-service training necessary to support their adoption and utilization in the classroom. In Utah, the proposed Senate Bill 21 (1994, February Legislative Session) provides that school districts can spend up to 25 % of their ETI legislative funds for teacher in-service. Such legislation is consistent with the emerging consensus in the literature about in-service and technology. Sudzina (1993) for example, argues that teaching is generally complicated through the use of technology in the classroom. To offset those problems Sudzina concludes that both in-service and pre-service education should place technology near the center of learning and curricular improvements.

Administration

While there has been a strong emphasis on technology at the state level, the focus has tended to be on the instructional side of education rather than administration. For example, the five-year statewide Public Education Strategic Plan emphasizes technology as a support system for curriculum, assessment instruments, classroom management, instructional programs, and generally helping students achieve desired competence. Additionally, the Education Technology Initiative has been an effort by the legislature to emphasize technology as a tool for teaching.

Educational Information Resources Management (EdIRM), the administrative side of education, has only recently begun to be recognized as an important part of the whole technology question. The collection, storage, analysis, and dissemination of the wide variety of public education information are becoming increasingly difficult and complex activities. Many of these EdIRM functions are not currently effective or efficient. For example, while Utah has a statewide student data base, only about 30 districts and 1/2 of all students are included. Furthermore, a comprehensive, consistent and coordinated plan for EdIRM is lacking. Critical leadership and communication are lacking. There is only narrow understanding of the EdIRM concept. Meanwhile, technological change continues at a rapid pace.

Basic Issues

In order to facilitate coordination and common effort within the USOE as well as between the USOE and school districts, a statewide EdIRM task force has been informally formed. Made up of USOE and district staff, the committee has begun to identify and discuss some of the basic issues, as follows:

1. The USOE currently uses a mix of sometimes conflicting and cumbersome methods for collecting data from districts and schools. This includes both electronic and paper formats.
2. Districts and schools are required to submit data throughout the year.
3. Data are not electronically available to districts and schools after being analyzed and summarized by the USOE.
4. Sometimes the same data are collected and maintained more than once.
5. Coding standards for courses, schools and other areas are not consistently enforced by the USOE or followed by districts.
6. At times it is not clear who collects certain types of data or for whom those data are made available.
7. The USOE does not provide certain data that are desirable for policy making and program administration, e.g., enrollments by subject area.
8. Often having access to data is cumbersome, requiring the assistance of a computer programmer and lengthy delays.
9. Districts have difficulties in exchanging information, such as student transcripts, among themselves or with other institutions like universities.

New Directions for Administrative Technologies

The statewide EdIRM committee will be formalized, with full support from top USOE and district administrative staff. Membership will be broadened to ensure that appropriate links with the curriculum side of the technology. A long term goal is the assignment of a full-time Project Manager within the USOE. A second direction will be the development and writing of a Mission Statement. Writing these statements will be an early priority, in order to ensure that everyone involved with the new system will be using a common presentation and language. The key will be an Information Technology plan that re-engineers administration data systems in a manner tied to the overall state strategic plan. A third goal will be to develop an overall data collection system that is simple and useful. Districts must be able to maintain independent systems while electronically supporting the statewide database. Fourth, a complete analysis of all data collection processes and elements is needed. A data dictionary will be written, cross referencing all of the data elements used in the public school system. Additionally, a periodicity document will be produced, providing information such as who has responsibility for each area of information and where the official files and statistics for the system are location. Finally, communication systems between and among public schools, higher education and other agencies must be improved. This will ensure the appropriate development of the "electronic highway" in such areas as Ed-Net, Internet, and US West and Framerely.

The coordination of data exchange, communications, and standard formats, hold considerable potential for changing the role and character of school administration in Utah. Where in the past, access and the cost of information limited the role of administrators, as isolated front-line managers, expansion and simplification of the information network could provide them an opportunity to act more strategically.

Super-Highway

A Technological School is a school with no walls. It is a dream that goes back to the 1950's when rural educators around the world sought to provide education over radio waves. It is the same vision of rural educators during the 1970s who shipped copies of video taped instruction from school to school. Underlying this vision is a hard reality: school buildings are expensive to construct, appoint, and maintain. As politicians face the bill of replacing America's aging schools, the vision of a new technological approach to education has a very pragmatic ring to it.

But if building new school houses is thought to be expensive, building a new "super-digital" highway will not be cheap. The magnitude of the proposal is made especially clear by referencing the national debate about the "National Information Highway." In the following section, the chief executive officers (CEO's) of computer businesses discuss the cost and problems of constructing an information highway as well as the potential value of the market created by such a highway. Underlying these observations is the belief that computer technologies and information highways will offer educators a cost effective means of producing and delivering educational services. While it is true that the cost of computing power has declined incredibly over the last few years, not all educators/researchers believe that such an investment will be cost-effective.

Reigeluth & Garfinkle (1992), for example, have begun to question the cost-effectiveness of computer technologies, noting that most claims about the cost-effectiveness of computer technologies have simply focused on the cost of computer software and hardware. While these costs are important they are but a few to be considered. Gering & Schmied (1993) identify a number of costs that are obstacles to adoption including student time, intellectual property issues and consequent licensing issues. Katz (1992) identifies the problem of constructing and maintaining the computer infra-structure as another source of complication with regard to the promise of a cost-effective delivery system. Whitten (1992) identifies the costs associated with upgrading and maintaining network systems that support computer environments as a significant problem in the future.

More, as business gets more involved with the development of the information highway, the current subsidies provided by the federal government that support low cost networking are likely to be more subject to toll fares in the future. As user demands for "free" services like Internet and Gopher increase, the maintenance costs associated with them are likely to increase. Already one can notice that the information available on services like gopher is often infrequently updated; in an information age old information is like money in a highly inflationary economy: useless.

Questions about the cost effectiveness of the computer technologies may, however, be academic. The computer age is upon us all, and the problem is not one of forestalling its arrival but rather of nurturing it in ways consistent with public policy goals. The discussion in the following section has been compiled from the a number of sources, but primarily from news articles. Inclusion of this review of current events is intended to provide the reader with a sense of the changing national environment supporting and molding the development of a super digital highway.

A NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE: BUSINESS AND THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

George Fisher, CEO and chairman of Motorola Inc. offered this comment about the future: "We are about to [witness] one of the most momentous changes in the history of communications" (Smith 1993, p. 86). The change Fisher describes is the promise of a seamless network bound together by a digital information highway. At stake, according John Sculley, CEO of Spectrum Information Technologies Inc., is a market potential exceeding 3.5 trillion dollars within the next 10 years (Patch, 1993, p. 99). Not surprisingly, both of these CEOs note that those who are first to develop these networks will have an unbelievable competitive advantage.

According to Dodge (1993), writing for PC Week, the initial "digital land rush" will involve the cable operators, Regional Bell Operating Companies, AT&T, Intel Corp. and other PC giants. The goal will be to create an infrastructure that will transmit voice, video, and data in a interactive network using both wired and wireless systems. Once established the networks will provide access to a wide variety of products, services, and information systems, all of which will cost the user dearly. Such markets will provide the impetus for providers such as the Sony Corp., software giants like Microsoft as well as small scale vendors, to create interactive applications that will make the most of this new integrated information network.

The Clinton administration, Congress, and industry are all working together to create the information highway, or as it is called, the National Information Infrastructure (NII). There are a number of reasons why the construction of the NII will require a partnership between private and public institutions. Construction of the digital highway is unlike the construction of the national highway system, which could be planned and then constructed. Development of a high speed national digital highway will require that numerous local systems be pulled together into a single coordinated system. The problems are many, but include developing a means by which to integrate a large number of existing networks and delivery systems based on different communication lines: telephone wires, cable, cellular and fiber optics. Gathering the pieces of this system and developing a nationwide high speed system will require the coordinated efforts of business as well as government.

In September of 1993, President Clinton earmarked more than 1 billion dollars for the development of the National Information System. Clinton proposed a partnership in his Agenda For Action, where business would subsidize the NII's telecommunication links, switches, and network software (Patch, 1993, p. 91). The estimated cost of these investments is up to 100 billion dollars. Government's responsibility, according to Clinton's proposal, is to promote industry's investment in an interactive network, ensure security and reliability, coordinate intellectual property rights, promote the development of new applications, and to provide access to government data bases.

Business has responded by creating an NII testbed; a collection of business, university and government labs which will use available technology to test distribution packages as pilot projects for the superhighway. This groups includes AT& T, Sprint, HP, Digital Equipment Corp., SynOptics communications Inc., the University of California at Berkeley, and Sandin National Laboratories, among others. It is noteworthy that the businesses will foot the bill for these testbeds. The reason, according to Murphy CEO for Hewlett Packard, "We expect to build markets out of this [project]" (Patch, 1993, p. 99).

Congress has responded to this agenda by putting forward the National Competitiveness Act of 1993 (Title VI of S 4) which updates Al Gore's High Performance Computing Act of 1991. The purpose of the National Competitiveness Act is to support the development of software useful to public agencies, like schools and health care systems, and libraries. The bill provides 136 million dollars for this purpose in 1994 and 244 million in 1995. Another bill, Senate Bill 1086, is intended to regulate the firms developing software and services providing access to the information highway (the on and off ramps to the system). The concern underlying the bill is one of preventing businesses from creating monopolies over this aspect of the system.

While Congress and the President are providing support for the development of the National Information Infrastructure, support for existing networks, such as Internet, is being withdrawn. Wilkinson (1993) notes that the annual subsidy of 11.5 million dollars for

Internet will be phased out in the coming years. For education, the effect could be a significant increase in costs, even if opening the market up to competition reduces the connection costs (the technical links) of the system. The reason is that the Federal Government's subsidy of Internet has primarily benefited universities that acted as hubs for the system. The message seems clear: the days of subsidized networks are numbered. Access to the superhighway may be easier in the future but it will not be free. Indeed, when one considers the potential related costs (training, upgrading software and hardware, maintaining the system, access fees, time managing the overload of information, adjustments to a new emerging labor market, licensing and contracting fees, etc.) the image is not one of a bright and inexpensive system, but rather of a complex and expensive one. Nonetheless, educational systems are bracing themselves for the inevitable transformation of society that the information age portends. Strategic plans aside, the race toward the technological future hardly appears to be an example of planned change.

POLICY ISSUES AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

As a policy agenda, computer technologies hold considerable promise. First, and not insignificantly, computers are symbolic of a new era in human history. Information technologies of the near future are frequently described in social and economic terms as analogous to the advent of the industrial age of the past. In such a perspective, schools are viewed as having an obligation to prepare students for the labor markets and economies of the future. Consequently, considering the thrashing public schools received during the 1980s as failed institutions, it is not surprising that schools should adopt these technologies as a gesture of good intention if not improvement.

Public educators in Utah were no less immune to these pressures than educators in other states. As a strategy by which to show the public progress in educational reform, computers were a relatively inexpensive investment. Since 1990, the state legislature has invested about 12 million dollars a year towards the development of computer technology in public education. To put this investment into perspective, total allocations for public education during the 1991-92 school year were about 1.5 billion dollars. In other words, the investment into computer technologies represents less than 0.8% of the total allocation for public education.

Consider what public policy-makers get in return for their investment. First, legislative funds were matched with funds from private businesses. In other words, the provision of legislative funds created a matching grant environment that presumably raised funds that otherwise would not have been available to support public education. According to the data provided by the ETI Project Office, the efforts to promote matching funds was successful. In this sense, the promotion of computer technologies has given legislatures access to new sources of revenue that previously have not been available. Second, and perhaps more importantly, educators create a political coalition that shares the responsibility for the success and failure of public education. No longer are educators operating in isolation from the larger business community; with the implementation of the ETI legislation, public education has truly emerged as a public concern. The claims by business that educators have failed them will not be as easily made because the responsibilities are increasingly shared.

So high are the expectations society holds for computer technology in education that it is reminiscent of the expectations society held for space technologies in the early 1960s. Then, the goal of setting foot on the moon embodied a vision of hope and future for a prosperous America. Computer technologies in education offer society a similar hope, if not promise. The vision is one of modern technologies creating dynamic and appropriate learning environments, capable of preparing children for a competitive international market place. From this flows the development of the "super-schools," where learning is "integrated" and students are able to get a "smart start" (Ameritech Foundation, 1992; Barth & Mitchell, 1992)

In 1968 NASA landed two Americans on the moon after which the same "society" that once lauded NASA began to question the costs and benefits of such ventures. The dream was forever changed when the explosion of the Challenger Space Shuttle killed, among others Christa McCuliffe, an elementary school teacher. It is too early to say that educational technology will end up like NASA, but it is not too early to begin thinking about the future of technology as it is likely to manifest itself in the organization of schools.

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CHAPTER SIX

SCHOOL GUIDANCE/COUNSELING IN UTAH: THE IMPACT OF THREE REFORMS

By: Dorlene Walker

HIGHLIGHTS

- Reform efforts have influenced definitions of guidance and counseling services.
- Accountability and effectiveness increase when counseling roles and functions are clearly delineated.
- Services for all students: The Comprehensive Guidance Program Model, The Students Educational and Occupational Plan (SEOP), and infusion of life skills topics into the core curriculum, indicate the necessity of a systematic and programmatic guidance/counseling effort.
- The Student Educational and Occupational Plan (SEOP) is intended to be a key influence in training for functioning in a technical society.
- Technology such as computer assisted guidance programs and distance learning contribute to counselor practice and training.

School guidance/counseling practice and organization within the state of Utah are undergoing major changes in role definition and structure due to reform efforts of the past ten years. Some of these efforts come from calls for reform within education as a whole, i.e., proposals centering around restructuring systems or goals (Perry, 1992) while others are more specific to the profession and practice of school counseling (Collet, 1983).

Three issues have had significant influence on school counseling practice and have contributed to the definition of reform efforts in this area. The first source of change relates to vocational and career preparation. Impetus for reform comes from challenges articulated by educators, job market analysts, and legislative actions to prepare students to adapt and function in a highly technical national and global economy (Keough, 1986). The second issue is rooted in certain demographic trends such as drug abuse, violence, teen suicide, teen pregnancy, and unemployment. Wide-spread social response to these trends has been to call for action within educational settings. Prevention and intervention efforts are most often directed at curricula for specific topics and school programming that addresses affective, coping, and problem solving skills (Mascari, 1990). The third influence on reform has emerged from within the profession of school counseling. Clearly defined roles and functions for the counselor within the school setting are gaining support as a more effective way of providing services to children. As a result several models for uniform school

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counseling programs have been developed and evaluated (Perry, 1992). The three areas of reform discussed in this paper are extensions of the issues mentioned above. A description of these efforts and a brief discussion of factors contributing to these reforms follows.

REFORM #1: A FORMAL ENDORSED MODEL OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING IN K-12 SCHOOLS

This discussion includes a brief overview and description of factors that have set the stage for what is probably the most significant reform issue for school counselors within the state, the implementation of a comprehensive guidance/counseling model. Components of the model that reflect changes within school counseling practice are then highlighted.

Influential factors that led to the adoption of a comprehensive guidance and counseling model include the following: 1) Unclear definitions of professional identity and development. Those concerned with professional training and practice have long called for reform related to redefining the school counselor's role, 2) financial imperatives for reform that call for increased accountability and productivity within school structures, and 3) the Utah State Strategic Plan, 1992-1997; a document that articulates specific reforms related to individual student experiences and goals for education. These factors are described in more detail in the following sections.

Role Ambiguity

Traditionally, school guidance/counseling services reflected a set of loosely related activities whose focus often shifted with cultural trends. This type of service delivery is often referred to as an ancillary model of guidance/counseling services wherein interactions with the counselor were viewed as supplemental to the child's educational experience. Defining the actual role of the counselor was very difficult because different school and individuals within the school placed differing emphasis on what the counselor should be doing. Some individuals had a professional identity related to delivering one-to-one counseling services to students. Others identified with providing guidance or emphasizing career and/or educational planning to students, and still others identified with the administrative tasks of running the school. Over time, researchers and practitioners noted that the lack of definition in the function of the school counselor's ancillary services resulted in problems such as: duplicating programs within the school and district; a lack of coordination of activities; some unexamined assumptions about the relationship between counseling staff activities and student outcomes; and a focus of attention on a few student subgroups (Collet, 1983). Within the state of Utah, efforts to address the difficulties resulting from unclear role definitions gave impetus to USOE consideration of adopting a comprehensive guidance/counseling model. Goals to be met by utilizing the model related to specifying counselor roles and functions through recommended activities, time allotments, and accountability measures.

Funding Levels

The reality of diminished financial support for the development of new and existing educational services within the State of Utah has been documented elsewhere (see Johnson, 1993). Guidance/counseling services have been impacted by directives like Utah's Public School Reform Improvement Act of 1984 (HB179). This bill looked at, among other things, standing patterns of school organization. This bill called attention to the need for increased productivity in schools by "improving the quality of educational programs while serving the same number of students with less money." Economic need drove administrators and counselors to look at the effectiveness and accountability for productiveness of services rendered in schools. This effort provided a focus for looking at how effective counseling and guidance programs were in reaching the majority of students. State and national program evaluations indicated that counselors were not providing balanced guidance/counseling services to all students. Here again, consideration of the possible increased effectiveness of a different type of service delivery was indicated.

State Strategic Plan for Education

In 1988 the Utah State Legislature specifically required the State Board of Education to implement the preparation of a student education plan that would, beginning in the 9th grade, focus on each student's intent and course of study through the 12th grade. This was referred to as a Student Educational Plan (SEP). The plan was to be prepared by the student with parent and school counselor assistance. The goal of personalizing education for each student in the state was further expanded by the Utah State Public Education Strategic Plan: 1992-1997 to include student, parent, teacher and counselor meetings for educational and occupational goals in grades 1, 3, 6, and yearly thereafter. The title of the plan was changed to the Student Educational and Occupational Plan (SEOP). The Strategic Plan defines the goal for a student SEOP as competency in learning and occupational skills. The integration of guidance/counseling services within the school system is recognized as key to the successful implementation of the objectives of this goal. Planning and implementation of the SEOP requires services that are "core" components of the students educational experience rather than ancillary to it. Integration of guidance/counseling services requires some structural changes within school systems. For example, counselors need to support the development of career and decision making skills for all students in order to help them develop an effective SEOP. Since this cannot be done individually due to time and financial constraints, classroom instruction is necessary. The counselor's involvement in the process of delivering this service to students represents significant elements in reconceptualizing counseling services within the school system. The counselor needs to work from within the school system (through instructional consultation or direct classroom work, providing curriculum, and evaluating student outcomes within the SEOP). Counselor priorities shift from providing services (whether reactive treatment or college planning) for some students to conducting a program designed around life and career goals for all students. The impact of the Strategic Plan for Education highlights the fact that successful implementation of the of the guidance/counseling services necessary to support the SEOP requires adopting a programmatic approach to guidance/counseling services.

The Utah Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling Program

Responding to the increased demand for accountability and direction in guidance/counseling services, the financial imperatives for productivity, and the redefinition of services from "ancillary" to "core", the Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling Program Model was introduced in Utah in 1989 through the sponsorship of the Utah State Office of Education. Components of this model and implications for counselor services are described below.

This program requires a level of structural support within the school. Teachers, administrators, and counselors are part of a team that develops directions and sets goals for the school's program. Recommendations for facilities, staffing, budget, and resources are included within the program model. Components of the program are:

1) Guidance Curriculum. Articulates student competencies in self knowledge, educational and occupational planning, and career planning. Guidance services are delivered through classroom presentations, activities, and interest groups outside the classroom.

2) Individual Planning/SEOP. Students develop and evaluate their own educational, occupational and personal goals in consultation with parents, teachers, and school counselors. The counselor's role is to provide students with individual appraisal and assessment of these goals, schedule meetings, and provide services for transition from one educational setting to another.

3) Responsive Services. Immediate needs and concerns of individual students are met through crisis counseling for emergency situations; individual/group counseling for developmental issues, and consultation with parents, teachers and community agencies to provide support for students.

4) System Support. Activities designed to provide indirect support to students through professional development, staff/community relations, community outreach, research and development, program management, and professional consultation.

The number of schools participating in the implementation of this formal endorsed model of guidance and counseling is expanding. In 1989, eleven schools participated in a pilot program sponsored by the Utah State Office of Education. At this time, 122 (about half) of the state's secondary schools are in some phase of implementation of this program. There are financial incentives for district participation. After a two year process of developing the staff and resources and evaluation tools necessary for implementation of the program, sites are reviewed by a visiting team. If the criteria determined by the state (such as appropriate resources, time allotments, and certain types of documentation) are met, Weighted Pupil Units (WPU's) are then allotted and schools receive additional funds from the state.

Funding for expansion of the Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling Program already exists. Currently the 55-60 schools that are fully invested in the Program receive 1.5 million dollars from the state. If the 169 secondary schools in the state participate in the program, financial support will be approximately 3.34 million dollars.

An important implication of successfully implementing the Comprehensive Guidance Model is the necessity of a collaborative relationship between administrators, teachers, and counselors. This approach has its roots in other national and state-driven reforms, i.e., site based decision making, school-business partnerships, special education inclusion and in a general cultural trend that supports collaboration as a response to system change.

REFORM #2: CURRICULUM AND PROGRAMMING

Another aspect of guidance/counseling reform is manifest in the school counselor's increased involvement in the development and implementation of certain types of programs offered to students. Reform is also reflected in mandates for counselors to become involved in planning and instructional support for aspects of the core curriculum related to healthy life skills and career planning. Generally speaking, curriculum reforms tend to reflect legislative (or USOE) mandates while programming efforts reflect national, state, and local social agendas and subsequent funding.

The Guidance/Counseling Role in Curriculum Planning and Implementation

The focus of guidance/counseling in this area is shifting as counselors respond to two mandates from the state. In 1987, Revised Statewide Core Curriculum Standards were adopted, and Utah state graduation requirements were expanded to include an emphasis on health and vocational training. Goals related to healthy lifestyles were written for every grade level (K-12) with objectives for information, concepts, and skills included as elements of core instruction. Vocational education objectives were written for grades 7 through 12. As a result, students are required to spend an increased amount of time in course work related to these topics. Adopting these standards had implications for the school counselor. Direct and indirect support for core curriculum objectives requires professional training in these areas. Counselors are asked to provide assistance to teachers regarding developmentally appropriate curriculum, use collaborative problem solving skills and knowledge related to career development issues, and even provide classroom instruction on specific topics. This represents a decided change in role and function for the counselor.

It should be noted that there is a difference between elementary and secondary schools assimilation of this role definition that is driven by site expectations of the counselor. Elementary counselors tend to provide more direct services to classrooms and teachers while secondary counselors serve a more consultative function in curriculum implementation.

Programming: The Student Educational and Occupational Plan (SEOP)

The emphasis for an individually written educational and occupational plan for every student in the state has been described earlier in this paper. Reform is indicated at state and national levels in the way that students are prepared for life after high school. Labor market experts acknowledge that, given the effect of technology on the types of work people do, few jobs will remain the same for longer than five years. It is estimated that adults will experience four career shifts in their work lives. Hoyt (1989) describes "the job at hand for K-12 education to prepare youth for opportunities of a lifetime of change . . . children must graduate from high school with knowledge and skills to pursue not a single career but a series of careers. There is an expectation that they face a lifetime of learning."

Legislative mandates for the SEOP and adoption of the Utah State Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling Program Model occurred in similar periods of time. As mentioned previously, the SEOP is an essential component of comprehensive guidance services. The Comprehensive Guidance and Counseling Program defines the goals, objectives, and learning activities related to the SEOP.

As a result of the SEOP fitting under the umbrella of comprehensive guidance services, secondary school counselors have support within the school to shift away from clerical responsibilities in order to meet at least once a year with each student and parent.

Elementary school counselors do not, as yet, have defined roles to play in the K-6 Student Education and Occupation Plan structure.

Prevention Programming

Schools throughout the nation are experiencing the effects of national, state and local mandates for change related to social issues (Morrison, 1989). Issues of violence and conflict resolution, drug and alcohol abuse, and family disorganization (divorce, homelessness, poverty) have been shown to affect children's educational progress (Slavin, 1989) as well as their ability to function as contributing members of society in adult roles. Concern about the long-term impacts of these factors has led to increased funding for what is often called "prevention programming" in schools. The influence of federal reform agendas has been experienced in increased funding to schools and communities through programs like the Drug Free Schools and Communities Act of 1987. Funding is on the increase from 359 million in 1989 to 593.3 million in 1993. Violence Prevention programs funded by the U.S. Department of Justice and Title I monies for children at-risk have become increasingly accessible. The school counselor is often in a key role for implementation of these programming efforts because of his/her training, expertise, and availability to the classroom. Specific impacts on school counselors have been: 1) increased paperwork to maintain program eligibility, specifically the Title I programs, 2) greater involvement in grant writing and implementation, and 3) a more administrative function in coordinating prevention efforts.

REFORM #3: TECHNOLOGY INITIATIVES

Legislative enactments within the state of Utah have determined, among other things, a reassessment of counseling role to include utilizing technology for guidance activities. Technology reform is also impacting counselor training.

The Public School Reform Improvement Act of 1984 (HB179) set an agenda to improve quality, productivity and efficiency in 12 areas related to education. One area that has specific implications for counselors is related to technology for student services. In the last decade, Utah developed a Statewide Information System (SIS) that provided access for counselors to software programs that allowed for organization and information about student courses, attendance, grades, activities, and even notes of conferences. Many districts, mostly the larger ones in the state, have gone on to develop their own mainframe programs. Regardless of the source of the technology, the improvement in access to information has positively impacted counselor efficiency and productivity. This kind of technical support is key to the success of services such as the SEOP.

The Utah State Office of Education initially provided leadership and assistance to local school districts in utilization of computer assisted guidance programs such as the Guidance Information System (GIS). This program provided counselors with a tool for up-to-date occupational information and assessment of interests and aptitude for nearly every student in the 9th or 10th grade. Currently, most districts have opted to purchase "CHOICES" (a software program for personal computers) that includes files in the following areas:

1) Occupational Information (field of work, listing of occupations, worker trait information)
2) Armed Services Information
3) Two Year College Information
4) Four Year College Information
5) Educational Programs
6) Self Administered Aptitude Test

The Educational Technology Initiative (HB468:1990) is a reform effort directed at increasing the effectiveness of learning and training through technology. Although the Educational Technology Initiative (ETI) did not specifically address counseling or guidance roles it contains the potential for significantly influencing the numbers and quality of professionally trained school counselors, specifically by accessing the technology for providing training in rural areas where counselor shortages are severe. In 1990 the Master Plan for Distance Learning was adopted by the Utah State Office of Education. Distance learning has the potential for impacting children's lives in areas where counselor shortages make a difference in the types and qualities of services offered. The Utah Education Network (EDNET) is actively involved in distance learning programs. Funding from the ETI, guidance from the Master Plan for Distance Learning, and utilization of EDNET reflect the impact of technological reform on meeting identified training needs within Utah. In 1993 both Governor Mike Leavitt and President of the University of Utah, Arthur K. Smith, have expressed strong commitment to utilizing distance learning to meet school guidance/counseling objectives. At this time, Utah State University provides a distance learning program for training school counselors in rural areas in northern Utah. Other counselor training programs within the state are in the process of expanding services with projected funding from the ETI.

CONCLUSION

Education in Utah is experiencing reforms that have affected change in preparation for students to function in a rapidly changing technical world, certain types of curriculum and programs offered to students, and even the conceptual view of service delivery to students. These factors have created a climate for the restructuring and redefinition of school counseling practice.

The effectiveness of comprehensive guidance services has been demonstrated by increased grade point averages, reduced problem behaviors, and improved school attendance at the secondary level within certain school districts in the state. An evaluation of the statewide effort has yet to take place. This is a key piece of information necessary for future decision making. Is support for this program based on a solid foundation of effective and generalizable practices, or does it come from a point of view that asserts that any change is good as long as it's different from what's been done in the past?

The ability to make decisions about any program stemming from institutional reform ultimately lies in documentation and evaluation of program effectiveness. This is an important challenge for guidance/counseling reform related to prevention programming and the SEOP process. Evaluation of new programs and additions to the curriculum need to include accountability measures for the school counselor. His/her participation in class presentations, team meetings, coordination of other services should be planned, purposeful, and held to clearly identified performance goals. This approach requires a shift in the way that the counselor and other educators view the counselor's role. The program of services is viewed as part of the "core" student experience and not as the elective experience that it has been in the past. The counselor becomes the professional responsible for the implementation of a program of comprehensive services and must prioritize time and activities in order to provide a balanced program. In the past, counselors tended to specialize or focus on one or two aspects of service to students. These past practices have tended to make counselors autonomous within the school setting. Recent changes call for counselors to become a part of the educational team. It is likely to meet resistance at many levels of implementation because teachers, administrators, and even counselors have not experienced a consensus regarding elements of the counselor's role. Part of the process of overcoming resistance will be to "educate" school professionals about the advantages of defining the counselor as a member of a team to provide services to all students. The use of technology in guidance/counseling training and continued in-service to counselors statewide has the potential for expanding this view of roles and functions of the school counselor.

School systems need to acknowledge the parameters of accountability by making changes in funding and support. Student-counselor ratios need to be examined so that realistic expectations can be met in the SEOP process and other clearly defined counselor roles.

The differences between guidance/counseling at the elementary and secondary levels become apparent within this paper. A vision of what implementation of comprehensive guidance/counseling services will look like at the elementary level has not been articulated. Until this is accomplished, claims made for evaluating the "comprehensive" element of this program cannot be made.

The three reform issues addressed in this paper highlight the benefits of clear delineations of guidance/counseling role and functions for providing quality services to Utah's children in the next ten years. Responsible proactive planning is a strategy for effecting positive change that counselors have in common with other educators. Effective reform appears to be based on sharing that information.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

SCHOOL FINANCE REFORM AND UTAH: THE EYE OF THE HURRICANE

By: Patrick F. Galvin

HIGHLIGHTS

- Recent school finance litigation victories have relied on state constitutional clauses as the basis for judicial arguments that systems of public school finance are in need of reform.
- Utah's constitution does not include restrictive language that makes such constitutional challenges possible in other states.
- Utah's school finance plan includes many of the legislative requirements being imposed in states struggling with litigated school finance reform, providing further evidence of Utah's protection from constitutional challenges.
- Expenditure and taxpayer inequities in public school finance do exist in Utah.
- Enacting language from Utah's Education Strategic Plan which is a part of the state's legislative code has redefined the state's responsibility for ensuring that every individual has equal access to a minimum level of educational attainment. This new language may create a judicial environment favorable to a constitutional challenge to the state's system of public school finance.

One of the most contentious and litigated reform efforts in education is public school finance. Since the landmark Serrano v. Priest (1971) case in California and the San Antonio v. Rodriquez (1973) case in Texas, the supreme courts of 24 states have been ruled on the legality of the school finance system in their individual states. Of these, 12 have ruled the funding systems unconstitutional (Alabama, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Kentucky, Montana, New Jersey, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming), and 12 have held that their funding systems were constitutional (Arizona, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Maryland, Michigan, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin) (Fulton & Long, 1993).

In the San Antonio v. Rodriquez (1973) case, the U.S. Supreme Court held that education was not a fundamental right under the Federal constitution. The Rodriguez decision ended hope for a nationally mandated school finance equalization plan. Further, this extinguished what Thro (1990) and Levine (1993) have described as the first wave of public school finance litigation. A reform effort that relied on the federal Constitution's equal protection clause.

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The second wave of school finance litigation began just days after the Rodriquez decision with the Robinson v. Cahill (Robinson I) case (Levine, 1993). The second wave of school finance reform shifted its legal arguments from the federal level to the state level. Where the first wave based its argument on the U.S. Constitutional equal protection clause, the second wave of litigation was based on alleged violations of state constitutional equality clauses.

Prior to 1989, McUsinc (1991) notes that "virtually every [state level] school finance case consisted primarily of an equal protection clause." According to Levine (1993) the net effect of these second wave court cases was marginal; only a few victories for school finance reform emerged from the litigation. However, in 1989 and 1990 four state court cases relied exclusively on state constitutional education clauses as the basis for arguing that some form of school finance reform was necessary.[1] Thro described these cases as the third wave of school finance reform. The success of these, and other subsequent court cases, have lead several school finance experts to suggest that the future of school finance litigation will be based on these state education clauses (Underwood & Sparkman, 1991; Thro, 1990).

The purpose of this chapter is to apply the current legal thought about the third wave reform litigation to an examination of Utah's school finance system. Specifically, in a legal environment where more than 24 states have faced constitutional challenges to their state school finance systems, why has Utah been able to keep free of such circumstances? Considering the current events in Texas, New Jersey and Kentucky (as well as other states) will Utah's school finance system face a legal constitutional challenge? The answer to this question may not be in an examination of past legal cases or in the language of the constitution, but rather in the recent enactment of legislation that makes Utah vulnerable to both equity and minimum standard challenges.

THIRD WAVE OF SCHOOL FINANCE LITIGATION

There are two general issues embedded in the third wave of school finance litigation. The first focuses on the language of the educational constitutional clauses themselves. McUsic (1991) distinguishes two categories of clauses: equity claims and minimum standard claims. Equity claims within constitutional clauses provides assurances that students have a right to an equal educational opportunity. Minimum standard claims refer to language within a constitution that assures students of some level of educational competence or attainment. While many state constitutions contain language that guarantees students equal educational opportunities or some level of minimum attainment, not all state constitutions make these claims. Where the constitutional language of educational clauses is not clear, judicial rulings have been increasingly guided by the legislative code and the intention of such law. These trends have important implications for understanding Utah's current status.

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[1] In the states of Montana, New Jersey, Texas, and Kentucky.

The second general issue related to the current wave of finance litigation has to do with legislative implications for the judicial interpretation of these rulings. Levine(1991) identifies three legislative strategies dealing with these ruling: 1) equalizing all districts' budgets (total revenue equality); 2) equalizing only the significant parts of districts' budgets (minimum revenue equality); or, 3) equalizing taxpayers' capacity (access equality). Key to all of these strategies is the premise that money is a key input. Unlike the first and second wave of litigation, however, the issue of money in the third wave is not its explicit relationship with educational outcomes, but rather its relationship to an equal educational system. As McUsic(1991, p. 317) notes, "Even if expenditure differences do not correspond to the education received, they do represent substantial differences in the system, and that is precisely what is forbidden by the language in the [states'] constitution."

Education Clauses in State Constitutions

Every state constitution contains an education clause that provides for the establishment of an educational system; the exception here may be Mississippi where the constitutional mandate is less than clear (McUsic, 1991, p. 311). Typically, according to McUsic (1991), state constitutions contain language requiring the establishment of schools and guaranteeing them to be non-sectarian. Utah's constitutional law, provided below, fits with this generalization.

> Utah's Constitution: Article X Section 1.
>
> The Legislature shall provide for the establishment and maintenance of the state's education systems including: (a) a public education system, which shall be open to all children of the state; and (b) a higher education system. Both systems shall be free from sectarian control.

Some state constitutions, such as Montana's and New Mexico's, provides explicit claims requiring the state to provide "A system of education which will develop the full educational potential of each person. Equality of educational opportunity is guaranteed to each person of the state.(1991, p. 321)" A second group of equity clauses is less explicit, such as those in the constitution of Florida or Kentucky, which declare that an "adequate" provision should be "uniform" throughout the state. Nearly half the state constitutions have no requirement to achieve an equality in public education. Utah's constitutional clause unlike many others, such as Maine's and Alaska's, does not make an explicit equity claim.

The second type of constitutional clause focuses on the claim that state constitutions mandate some absolute minimum level of education: this is called the standards claim. As with the equity mandates, the language of state education clauses varies (McUsic, 1991, p.333). A number of states make explicit (Illinois, Montana, Virginia, Louisiana, and Washington) reference to their responsibility for providing a quality system. Most state constitutions, like those in Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, etc., make less explicit standard claims, such as providing a "through and efficient system," or an "adequate" education. Finally, a hand full of states, including Utah, Alaska, Missouri, Oklahoma, Michigan, Mississippi, New York, South Carolina and Tennessee all require a "general," "uniform," or "thorough" system. While these clauses provide for the commitment, existence, and maintenance of school systems, they do not provide a basis for claiming that a minimum standard of education quality is guaranteed.

Judicial interpretation of these court findings have found that while the terms equality, uniform, and adequate all mean "equal" such language does not necessarily require states to equalize per pupil spending for educational services. In many cases, the courts have argued that uniformity, adequacy, and equality does not require equal spending but rather a uniformity of course requirements and teacher qualifications that enable students to transfer from district to district without substantial loss of credit or standing (McUsic, 1991, p.323).

The minimum standard claims, with regard to a state's constitutional educational obligation, differ significantly from equity standards because minimum standards call for a minimum level of achievement not for an equality in outcomes. McUsic(1991, p.327) identifies three advantages, from a judicial point of view, of the minimum standards claims over equity-based claims. First, minimum standards claims are less likely to disrupt local control of schools. Local control over public education is a long standing political as well as legal principle, the rationale of which was recognized and legitimized by the U.S. Supreme Court in the Rodriquez case. Local control is not compromised in a minimum standards claim because districts are still able to augment their programs above minimum standards if the district's constituency so chooses.

Second, the focus on education outcomes rather than educational inputs is identified as another advantage of minimum standard claims. Equity-based finance claims seek to equalize inputs and are frequently stuck with the problem of arguing that the relationship between fiscal resources and educational outcomes is significant. Focusing on outcome measures has advantages because it reflects the concern of most citizens and hence has more political viability. More, the use of output measures ensures that the education of disadvantaged students will be supported. The use of minimum standard claims relieves the courts from legislating policy; responsibility for assuring minimum standards is left with educators. By holding that the minimum standards claim requires a minimum level of education and not financing, courts leave questions of how such results are achieved to the legislature and educators.

The political posture of minimum standard claims is its third advantage over equity-based constitutional claims. Equalizing funding frequently puts wealthy districts at odds with resource-poor districts. Increasingly, school finance experts (Clune, 1993) are arguing that such a political framework undermines the long-term efforts of school finance reform. The problem underlying school finance law suits is not one of equalizing sums of money but rather one of substantively improving the educational opportunities for disadvantaged students. Minimum standard claims, with their focus on output measures, do not require the equalization of the totality of educational inputs, but rather simply require that important features of a good education (such as a minimum reading and math level) be provided all children.

Court Response to Third Wave Reform Cases

While the theory of third wave school finance cases focuses on outcome instead of inputs, Levine (1991) notes that most courts still uses input measures by which to assess the adequate provision of educational services and not outcomes[2] measures (such as test scores, etc.).[3] From a judicial point of view, the continued focus on education inputs distinguishes the responsibility of school to teach from the question of whether students will learn. As Levine puts it "None of these courts require that students learn; all of them require that students be taught" (1991, p. 517).

Recognizing the irony in the courts position relative to outcome and inputs does not make simple the problem of judicial action. Court rulings have been split about how to promote equalization within a state. In New Jersey (the Abbott case), for example, the court ruled that equalization was achieved only by equalizing all district's budgets (total revenue equality), regardless of whether the funds came from local, state of federal sources.

These approaches illustrate the point made above, that while the courts may acknowledge that money is only one among many important educational inputs, measures of money is judicially manageable while other measures of inputs or outputs are judicially problematic. Key to each of these equity approaches is a system of weights and cost indexes that account for differences in district capacity and need.

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[2] See Edgewood (Texas), Abbott (New Jersey), Helna (Montana) and Rose (Kentucky)

[3] Specifically Rose (Kentucky) and Helena (Montana).

Only one state, New Jersey (the Abbott case), has used the total revenue equality standard by which to equalize school financing. One of the advantages of this solution to school finance inequities is that the total revenues for district budgets are equalize. While total revenue equality ensures that the politics of school finance do not result in narrowly defining "necessary" or "minimum" programs such that poor districts are left struggling while rich districts are able to provide a full component of services, such plans necessarily limit local control by placing caps on how much a district could spend. Levine argues that by forbidding wealthy districts to spend more than poor districts the net effect may be to eliminate the pressure to raise educational funding on a statewide basis. The argument rests on the presumption that the revenue gap between rich and poor districts is a source of embarrassment within the state and hence creates pressure on legislatures to increase funding within the state.

Minimum revenue equality, the second legislative solution identified by Levine (1991) requires that every student receive equal funding up to the point considered necessary to finance an adequate education (such plans are very much like the traditional Foundation plans used extensively by states around the country). The minimal revenue equality standard does not equalize tax payer effort and, hence, wealthier districts will raise more per unit of tax effort than poorer districts. While the minimum revenue equality standard maintains local control, it fails to resolve questions of what constitutes an adequate education or how to evaluate whether students are being provided such a level of service. By contrast, equalizing total revenues is more manageable, at least judicially, since once the level of the budget is determined the question of compliance is relatively straight forward.

Equal access to revenues, the third judicial standard for enforcing school finance litigation, focuses on taxpayer rather than student equalization. In the first two standards, equalization was promoted by ensuring that students received the same level of support within each respective plan. Access equality is intended to neutralize the discrepancy in the ability of property-rich or poor districts to raise tax revenues. Equal access equality ensures that equal tax rates yield equal tax dollars.

One of the advantages of equal access equality it that it relieves legislatures and courts from the task of prescribing some "adequate" level of funding, or determining what services are necessary or luxuries. Access equality imposes no spending caps and it preserves local control. Indeed, the plan lays claim to the holy grail of school finance litigation, that of fiscal neutrality. In other words, regardless of a parent's wealth or geographic circumstances, all would have equal access to the yield of their tax effort. These are politically and judicially important factors in any reform effort.

Problems with the equal access standard is that it requires some form of wealth redistribution to subsidize the poor districts, a politically difficult task when it requires that revenues generated from property wealthy districts are given to property poor districts. In most states this politically unpopular solution, called recapture, is simply avoided by substituting state aid derived from other sources to equalize differences in district property taxes. The premise of equal access requires a tightly regulated inclusive school finance plan, lest districts simply restructure their tax structure and rely more heavily on non-recapture property taxes to provide for the services desired within their districts. Another problem with the equal access equality standard is that it does not define some minimum level of service for students and, hence, local preferences may be inadequate to the state's interest and responsibility.

UTAH'S SCHOOL FINANCE SYSTEM

Utah's state constitution does much to protect the state from a constitutional challenge of its system of financing public schools. Unlike some state constitutions, where the responsibility to ensure all students an equal education is either explicitly or implicitly declared, Utah's constitution avoids such phrases all together.

Other aspects of Utah's school finance system further protect the state from a general challenge. First, Utah, unlike many states, imposes recapture on the revenues raised for the foundation (minimum) levy. Thus, where other states are attempting to ensure a minimum revenue equality, Utah's school finance plan has already established such a plan. The plan is relatively simple. As part of Utah's foundation plan, if any district raises more than the per pupil foundation grant, the state recaptures those funds and redistributes them to support equalization. Such a plan ensures that for the minimum program every student has exactly the same level of funding.

The second tier of Utah's school finance plan is more like the equal access plans being proposed in the school finance litigation. In this component of Utah's school finance plan, the board leeway taxes are equalized to a pre-established level so that regardless of the wealth of a district, taxpayers are able to raise at least a minimal level of revenue for these enrichment funds. Such a plan is not as rigorous as those proposed in the current court cases because it allows for the wealthier districts to raise more per unit of tax effort than poorer districts. On the other hand, ensuring a minimum level of funding per unit of tax effort helps minimize the disparity between districts.

A third component of Utah's school finance system that minimizes the possibility of a general legal challenge to its system of public school finance is the use of weighted pupil units as an equalizing distributional unit. In general, the weighted pupil unit (WPU) distinguishes the cost of a kindergarten student from that of a regular student in grades 1 through 12. This distributional unit is used, however, to account for differences in cost services delivered to vocational education students: students receiving very expensive services are assigned 2 to 5 additional weighted pupil units, thus multiplying the distributional effect of their needs by 2 to 5 times.

Special education also relies on a modified form of the weighted pupil unit system. The current system uses an average funding weight (1.53 WPUs) and a growth factor based on the 1989 distribution of special education funds in Utah.[4] Provision for special needs programs (necessarily existent rural schools, gifted programs, at risk programs, etc.) provides additional balance to Utah's school finance plan, consistent with the theory of equalization emerging from the current court cases. These funds are incorporated into Utah's minimum school program and do much to establish an argument for the rationality of the system and for the argument that the system meets and exceeds the constitutional mandates of the state.

Recognition of the strengths of Utah's school finance system does not ensure that equality of educational opportunity has been achieved. Underlying the third wave of school finance litigation is the focus on student achievement. William Bennett (1988, p. 516) made this clear when writing about education reform, "Fundamentally, education reform is a matter of improved results."[5] Among Utah's schools there exist very large differences in the level of achievement. For example, among Utah's 5th grade classes testing (N=419) the classes' average standardized achievement scores from Utah's Statewide Assessment ranged from the 8th to the 91th percentile (1992-93 school year). Restricting the range (from the 10th and 90th percentile) still revealed a set of scores ranging from the 33rd to the 68th percentile rank. More, these variations in student achievement are strongly correlated with the incidence of low income families within the school (r =.62). Considering the emphasis on equalizing basic skills these variations in achievement levels raise questions about the degree to which the current system of funding is providing students an equal educational opportunity.

While the controversy over the relationship between educational expenditures and educational quality is inconclusive, most court opinions assume that the level of funding of a school district affects the quality of the services offered (Dayton, 1993). Since virtually every state in the country relies on property taxes, to one degree or another, for state funding of public education, disparities in property wealth can play an important role in establishing the plaintiff's argument of inequality. In cases where the courts have ruled in favor of the plaintiffs, the difference between the poorest and wealthiest districts was as small as a 5 to 1 ratio to as large as a 40 to 1 ratio. Utah's assessed valuation (1992-93 data) ranged from a minimum of $56,983 per pupil to a maximum of 703,710 per pupil; a 12 to 1 ratio.

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[4] This change in the funding formula for special education runs counter in direction to the current trends in school finance litigation and may provide a weak link in the constitutional vigor of Utah's school finance system.

[5] Bennett, W. (1988). Our Children and our country. quoted in Levine (1991). p. 516.

Evidence of the variations in assessed valuation among school districts establishes the impossibility of equity being achieved by relying on local property taxes alone. The fundamental issue for school finance, however, is the situation where the constituents in a resource poor school district tax themselves at a higher rate than those in resource wealthy districts, but get less for their effort. Per pupil expenditure ratios (between high spending districts and low spending districts) have been found to be constitutionally significant in many cases (Dayton, 1993). In some cases, such as Abbott (New Jersey), where the state supreme courts ruled against the state, the spending disparity ratio was not large: 1.4 to 1. In other cases, such as Helena (Montana) and Rose (Kentucky) the spending disparity was greater than 9 to 1.

Examining Utah's spending disparities reveals that per pupil expenditures for just instructional services, range from a minimum of $1,802 to a maximum of $5,470: the spending disparity ratio is almost exactly 3 to 1. The Milliken case in New York State, which has a constitution like Utah's that does not provide specific equity or standard clauses, ruled that a 3 to 1 spending disparity was acceptable.

Considering the assumption of the courts that variations in spending are correlated with variations in educational quality, these spending variations appear to be substantial, even if the constitutional language does not create an immediate threat to the finance system. More fundamental to court cases, however, is the claim that these funding disparities are systematically advantageous to the wealthy district while disadvantageous to the clients in poor districts. In Utah, the relationship between total expenditures per pupil for instruction and support services is positively correlated with district wealth ($r = 0.396$).[6] This means that the wealthier the district the more that is spent on instruction and support services for students. Evidence of taxpayer effort indicates, however, that there exists an inverse relationship between taxpayer effort and per pupil expenditures for instruction and support services ($r = -0.261$).[7] This is to say that the greater the taxpayer effort the smaller the per pupil expenditures for instruction and support. The duality of school finance litigation, described above, requires, however, that poor taxpayers be making a greater effort while receiving less for their effort. If this duality exists there should be a negative correlation between the total tax levy within a district and the district's wealth (per pupil assessed valuation). Indeed, such is exactly the relationship found; the correlation between the district's wealth and its total tax levy is r = -0.229. In sum, the analysis revealed that wealthier districts are spending more per pupil on instruction and support services than poorer districts, even though taxpayers in the poorer districts are making a greater effort.

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[6] (Total expenditures for instruction and support services range from a minimum of $2,561 to a maximum of $8,879: the total spending disparity of 3.4 to 1.

[7] The measure of tax payer effort used here is the combined board leeways, since these taxes are intended to supplement and enrich the instructional programs of schools.

Examination of Utah's constitutional language has, in the past, lead to the conclusion that there was not a strong basis for challenging the state's system of school finance. Moreover, there were numerous factors in Utah's school finance plan that substantively promote equalization. But such factors do not mean that perfect equality exists, or that existing inequality is not systematically disadvantaging students and tax payers in the poorer districts. Evidence that in other states, such as New York and Arizona, where state supreme courts upheld the constitutionality of their respective system of public school finance does not mean that Utah is safe from such a challenge. In two states, Kansas and Connecticut, both with constitutional language similar to Utah's, the state supreme courts found the state's finance system unconstitutional (Dayton, 1993). Indeed, Dayton (1993) and LaMorte (1985) have both noted that in many cases similar wording among state constitutions have resulted in opposing conclusions. The explanation for such inconsistency has to do with differences in jurisdictions, legal history, and additional legislative language that may modify judicial interpretation of constitutional language.

Recent passage of Utah's Strategic Plan For Public Education, 1992, provides an important reference with regard to this last point. In that legislation the mission of public education was defined as follows:

> The Legislature recognizes that public education's mission is to assure Utah the best educated citizenry in the world and each individual the training to succeed in a global society, by providing students with learning and occupational skills, character development, literacy, and basic knowledge through a responsive educational system that guarantees local school communities autonomy, flexibility, and client choice, while holding them accountable for results. (53A-1a-103, Utah Code)

This language presents some significant and substantive changes in the legislative code and interpretation of the state's constitutional responsibilities for public education. Not only does it require of the state a high level of responsibility for providing "each individual the training to succeed in a global society," but it also requires that the system be responsive to local control while being accountable for the results. In other words, by both the equality standard and minimum achievement standard the Utah Strategic Plan has provided new language that significantly alters the constitutional framework by which the state obligates itself to equity and standard goals. Considering the variations in expenditure disparities and achievement disparities, this new language raises the possibility that Utah is more susceptible to a constitutional challenge than has previously been thought. .

Several other factors make Utah's school finance plan susceptible to challenge. First, in both Kentucky and Texas, one of the determining factors in the court's decision to rule that the state's school finance system was unconstitutional was that the level of support provided by the foundation program was so low that it failed to provide a substantially equal educational system. The question before Utahns is whether the existing level of funding forces districts to seek new sources of revenue not included in the equalization plan of the state's system of public school finance. Such arrangements may violate the principles of fiscal neutrality that the state's school finance system intends to promote. For example, school districts are increasingly in the business of creating private foundations and school-business partnerships that are not equalized as part of the states school finance foundation plan. If these new sources of revenue are systematically related to a district's wealth, then the current level of inequity could be much worse than commonly assumed.

A recent decision in the state of Michigan found that its use of a base distribution that uses growth factors for future distributions was unconstitutional. Such a plan is almost identical to that put in place by the Utah's special education program. In 1991, special education funding was changed from the level system to a base distribution and growth factor. Such a funding mechanism fails to account for differences in cost, changes in need, and levels of achievement. All of which are factors that increasingly govern the decisions about the legality of school finance systems.

The last point addressed here, but this certainly does not exhaust the list, is the question of intra-district spending disparities. Utah's Strategic Plan created a new legal environment with regard to the question of intra-district equity when it focused so specifically on the right of individuals and the obligation of the system to individuals. If Utah's constitution provided no guidance with regard to the constitutional obligation of the state to individuals, Utah's Strategic Plan is boldly explicit. The question of fiscal and outcome equity is no longer simply a matter of inter-district disparities. The implications for school finance cases in districts like San Juan, where questions about the district's responsibilities to the Navaho Indian students have long been a matter of legal debate, may now be a matter of constitutional and statewide legal concern.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

THE 1993 UTAH LEGISLATIVE SESSION: POLICY IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE AND GOVERNANCE

By Bob L. Johnson, Jr. & David J. Sperry

The year 1993 marked the 50th session of the Utah Legislature.[1] For many, it was a new experience. To begin with, the session was the first for newly elected Governor Michael Leavitt. In addition, it was a new experience for an unusually high number of legislators: approximately 36% of the state's lawmakers were new to Capitol Hill in 1993.[2] Yet while many of the faces were new, the challenges confronted in the 1993 Session were not. This proved particularly true in the area of education. Utah policy makers found themselves facing issues that have proven to be perennial pressures in the state's system of public education: booming enrollments, large class sizes, low teacher pay, fee waivers, and inadequate revenues.[3]

HIGHLIGHTS

- The 1993 Utah Legislative Session was a first for newly elected Governor Michael Leavitt and 36% of the lawmakers.
- Utah policy makers found themselves facing what have proven to be perennial pressures in the state's system of public education: booming enrollments, large class sizes, low teacher pay, fee waivers, and inadequate revenues.
- The 1993 Legislature adopted a number of changes to education and appropriated approximately half of the state's $4.24 billion budget to public and higher education.
- The centerpiece of the Governor's educational agenda and the definitive action of the 1993 Legislative Session was HB 100: The Centennial Schools Program.
- While many questions surround its viability as an instrument of reform, the Centennial Schools Program is likely to remain an important part of the Governor's educational agenda throughout the duration of his tenure.
- Several amendments were made to the Choice in Public Education by the 1993 Legislature.
- Revisions made during the 1993 Session have resulted in a new name for Coordinated Services for Children and Youth at Risk Act. Renamed the "Agencies Coming Together for Children and Youth At Risk Act", the act was expanded in terms of its provisions.
- In an effort to address increasing pressures arising in the state's system of higher education, the Strategic Planning Task Force on Education was expanded from 17 to 27 members to allow for a greater representation from higher education.

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[1] The 55-day session extended from January 19 to March 3, 1993.

[2] Utah Legislative Manual, 1993-1994. Salt Lake City, UT: Office of Legislative Research and General Counsel.

[3] For an analysis of the evolution of these pressures in Utah and recent policy responses see the first chapter in this volume. For a more detailed account see Bob L. Johnson, Jr., "In Search of A Coherent Policy of Reform: A Longitudinal Examination of Educational Reform In Utah", International Journal of Educational Reform, forthcoming, 1994.

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Running on a platform characterized by two priorities--improving public education without raising taxes[4]--Governor Leavitt, in his State of the State address, exhorted lawmakers to "shake up the state's public-school system from kindergarten through college."[5] With this gubernatorial challenge, the 1993 Legislature proceeded to adopt a number of changes and to appropriate approximately half of the state's $4.24 billion budget to public and higher education.[6]

Given this scenario, the purpose of this chapter is to provide the reader with an overview and description of "significant" education legislation passed during the 1993 Utah Legislative Session. Specific attention is given to legislation that affects the governance and structure of education in the State.[7] Individual legislative enactments are described and, where appropriate, speculations are offered regarding the possible difficulties and the impact of each. The reader is encouraged to place the discussion which follows within the broader context of reform as it has progressed in Utah in recent years. Many of the ideas captured in the legislation below, for example, are reflective of recommendations offered by the Utah State Public Education Strategic Plan, 1992-1997--a plan adopted by the 1992 Legislature to guide reform efforts in the State.

As has been noted elsewhere, determining the significance of a policy can prove rather problematic, particularly when the effects of that policy remain unknown to the future.[8] In this context, the significance of the policies noted below is a function of one or more of the following: 1) the amount of attention given the policy by the 1993 Utah Legislature; 2) the amount of funds appropriated for the implementation of the policy by the Utah Legislature; 3) and/or the magnitude of the anticipated effects of the policy once implemented.

For the sake of clarity, the discussion which follows is divided into several sections, each of which reflects a particular piece of legislation addressed by Utah lawmakers in 1993.

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[4] As noted by Bob Bernick, Jr., "Gubernatorial Candidates Offer Ideas on Education." Deseret News. Sunday, March 15, 1992: B8.

[5] As quoted by Judy Fahys, "As Legislators Gather, Leavitt Spells Out a Fourth 'R' for Education: Reform." Salt Lake Tribune. Tuesday, January 19, 1993: A1, A3.

[6] As has been the case in past years, the largest share of total state appropriations went to education. For fiscal year 1993-94, approximately $1.38 billion dollars was appropriated for public education. This represents an $89 million increase and comprises 38.8% of the total budget. Higher education in Utah received $473 million for the same period; this represents a $32 million increase from the previous year and comprises 13.3% of the 1993-94 state budget. Utah Foundation. "Research Report: Fiscal Summary of the 1993 Legislature." 558 (April 1993).

[7] For a more detailed analysis of educational policy other than governance, structure, and legal issues passed by the 1993 Utah Legislature, the reader is referred to the other chapters in this volume.

[8] Johnson, "In Search of a Coherent Policy of Reform:....", 1994.

HB 100: The Centennial Schools Program

Without a doubt, the centerpiece of the Governor's educational agenda for the 1993 Legislative Session was HB 100: The Centennial Schools Program.[9] So named to commemorate Utah's upcoming centennial year of statehood, the program has been hailed as an important means of pushing schools to a "whole new level of performance."[10] Consistent with the spirit of the Strategic Plan for Public Education articulated and adopted by the 1992 Legislature,[11] four key ideas would appear to be at the heart of the Program: strategic planning; decentralization of governance via site-based decision making; outcome-based education; and local innovation. To further understand these ideas, a description of the policy incentives contained in the actual legislation is in order.[12]

As sponsored by Speaker of the House Rob Bishop (R-Brigham City), the Centennial Schools Program is characterized by a set of mandates and inducements designed to translate policy intent into action. First, it should be noted that the program is voluntary; schools in Utah are encouraged but not required to participate. Although education is a function of state government, such a stipulation would appear to respect--if only in a symbolic fashion--the decision-making authority which has traditionally existed at the local level. Nevertheless, as a means of encouraging participation, the state has appropriated $2.6 million dollars for those schools who choose and who are chosen to participate. For individual schools who achieve Centennial School status, a base grant of $5,000 plus $20 per student is awarded.[13]

Yet, while participation in the Centennial Schools Program is in fact voluntary, not all schools who volunteer are chosen to participate. The ultimate decision rests with the state. Such authority is used by the state to align local educational practice with the spirit and intent of the Centennial Schools legislation. To insure this alignment, schools who wish to participate are required to complete an application provided by the Utah State Office of

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[9] It should be noted the bulk of Leavitt's first State of the State Address was devoted to the Centennial Schools Proposal. See "An Optimistic Attitude Helps Governor Envision Hopeful State of the State." Salt Lake Tribune. Wednesday, January 20, 1993: A1.

[10] As quoted by Dan Harrie, "Leavitt Assumes Office as 14th Utah Governor." Salt Lake Tribune. Wednesday, January 5, 1993: A1.

[11] For a detailed discussion of the development of the Utah State Public Education Strategic Plan see David J. Sperry and Bob L. Johnson, Jr., "The Organization and Control of Public Education in Utah." In The Status of Public Education in Utah: An Overview of Issues. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah Education Policy Center, 1993: 8-12. See also Utah Code 53A-1a-101f.

[12] Utah Code 53A-1a-301f.

[13] Thus, for a High School with 2,000 students that qualifies for Centennial School status, the grant from the state would be $45,000, i.e. ($5,000 + ($20 x 2,000)).

Education. As an additional part of the process, schools are required to submit a detailed plan of action describing, in an integrated fashion, the "innovative" steps that will be used to achieve systemic change in a given school.[14] Among other things, this plan of action must incorporate the following features:[15]

1. **Articulation of A Strategic Plan** - The articulation of a strategic plan which clearly:
    a. defines performance goals for all students and the means for achieving these goals;
    b. provides for the development of a personal education plan for each student (Student Educational Occupational Plan, SEOP) in conjunction with the "extensive"[16] involvement of parents;
    c. addresses basic and higher level learning skills;
    d. establishes strategies to involve business and industry through partnerships.
    e. describes the development and implementation of a plan which integrates technology into the school curriculum.
2. **Creation of Site-Based School Council** - Each participating school must provide evidence of the creation of a site-based school council. This council, comprised of teachers, classified employees, school administrators, and parents, is charged with the responsibility of collaboratively addressing matters critical to the achievement of school goals as established by the group and articulated in its strategic plan.[17] In addition, this site-based council must develop and implement procedures whereby it is made accountable for the goals and plans identified for its school.
3. **Waiver Provisions for State and Local Mandates** - To encourage innovation at the local level and where appropriate, the potential Centennial School must identify and request the waiving of state and local mandates that prohibit the school from achieving its performance goals as articulated in its strategic plan.

In addition to the financial inducements and mandates described above, two remaining incentives found in HB 100 are worthy of note. The first concerns funding. To encourage fidelity to intent and consistent progress, each school that achieves Centennial status must annually reapply for additional funding. The second represents an attempt to symbolically recognize those schools granted Centennial status as being on the vanguard of reform in Utah. Here, the point of leverage is higher education. The State Board of Regents is required to adopt policies for the state's public colleges of education that will mandate the sole use of Centennial Schools as on-site centers for pre-service professional education programs. This includes programs in teacher education and educational administration.[18]

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[14] "Utah Centennial Schools: Program Application." Utah State Office of Education, March 15, 1993.

[15] These "qualifications" are found in the Utah Code 53A-1a-302 and are reflected in the Centennial Schools Program Application designed by the Utah State Office of Education noted above.

[16] Ibid.

[17] According to the Utah Code, Section 53A-1a-302, "site-based decision making" is defined as a "joint planning and problem solving process that seeks to improve the quality of working life and education."

When considered concomitantly, the inducements and mandates associated with the Centennial Schools Program reflect definite ideas, assumptions, and values regarding the nature and means of educational reform in Utah. As previously noted, four ideas lie at the heart of the policy. In sum, these ideas may be combined to offer the following philosophy and rationale of HB 100:

> Moving Utah's system of public education to a new level of performance can be achieved as a decision-making structure, which allows for public and professional input, is created and allowed to function at the school-site level. This decentralized and collaborative structure has as its focus a strategic planning process aimed at defining and achieving--in an innovative fashion--specific, student-centered, outcome-based academic goals.

While this summation is rather verbose and abstract, it captures the essence of the Centennial Schools legislation. At this level of abstraction, the program would appear to have broad appeal. However, as these ideas are implemented in a more concrete fashion at the local level, confusion and conflict will undoubtedly arise. Thus, the important question to consider is whether the ideas and assumptions reflected in the rationale of HB 100 are in fact workable and valid. This is a question which deserves the attention of the three significant groups: the public, professional educators, and policy-makers. A list of specific concerns likely to be encountered during the initial year of program implementation can be found in box below.[19]

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[18] Utah Code, 53A-1a-305.

[19] Some of these questions are addressed in an informative flier issued by the Utah State Department of Education entitled, "Centennial Schools: How Will They Work?," n.d. The answered offered, however, are at times excessively vague.

Figure 8.1
Questions about the Centenital Schools

The Centennial Schools Program: Questions and Concerns

1. Is the Centennial Schools Program to be construed as a substantive or symbolic reform proposal?
2. Is the level of funding for Centennial Schools adequate?
3. How much autonomy will the school site council have?
4. What matters will fall under the decision-making domain of the local school based board of directors?
5. Who will control major budget decisions?
6. More specificity is needed regarding the articulation of responsibilities?
7. What will the relationship of the school site council be to the local board of education?
8. How will disagreements which arise between the site-based council at a school and the local district be resolved?
9. Will the pressure for annual renewal be excessively disruptive to the school? Should this be extended?
10. Will the increase of public vulnerability brought on by the Centennial Schools Program be detrimental to the education process?
11. Why did only 187 or 26% of Utah's public schools apply for Centennial School status?
12. Can the approach advocated in the Centennial Schools Program be expected to work in all schools?
13. Is the Centennial Schools Program a reasonable and workable reform option?

During the initial year of program implementation, 97 Utah schools were granted Centennial School status. To further understand how these schools were chosen, a brief description of the application and selection process is in order.

At the charge of the Legislature, the Utah State Office of Education was given the responsibility for implementing the Centennial Schools Program. Following the articulation of specific application procedures and guidelines, applications for Centennial School status were made available in March 1993. Given a May deadline, schools were allowed 2.5 months to complete and return these applications. At that time, a 14 member committee under the direction of the USOE[20] screened each application using a specific set of criteria drawn from the Centennial Schools legislation.[21] Following consultation, decisions regarding the awarding of Centennial status were announced in late June 1993. A summary of the percentage of schools applying for and receiving Centennial School status is found in Table 8.1. While 26% of the state's 716 public schools applied to the Centennial Schools Program, only 13.5% or 97 were chosen to participate. This figure falls below the maximum number of participating schools (200) originally designated by the Legislature for fiscal year 1993-94. As is indicated, the largest percentage of rewards were granted to high schools. This contrasts sharply with the one special/alternative school awarded Centennial School status.

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[20] The "Centennial Schools Selection Committee," as this 14-member group was called, was fairly representative of both the public and professional educators. The breakdown of the Committee is as follows: three representatives from the USOE, specifically an Associate Superintendent and representatives from Strategic Planning and Public Relations; two teachers, one elementary and one secondary; two representatives from the Governor's office; two representatives from colleges of education; one state legislator; one representative from the State Superintendent's Association; one

Table 8.1
Status Summary: Centennial Schools Program, 1993-94

	Elementary	Middle/ Jr High	High School	Special & Alternative	TOTAL
Number of Schools[a]	441	116	100	59	716
Centennial Applications	113 = 26%[b]	30 = 26%	44 = 44%	-	187 = 26%
Centennial Status	57 = 13%[c]	16 = 14%	24 = 24%	1 = 1.7%	97 = 13.5%

a) Source: Utah State Office of Education, November 1993.
b) Percent of all schools in this category who applied to the Centennial Schools Program.
c) Percent of all schools in this category who received to Centennial Schools status.

Whether the Centennial Schools Program will "over time cross-pollinate the system with new and hardier breeds" of schools, as Governor Leavitt suggests, remains to be seen.[22] While much optimism surrounds the Program, a number of unanswered questions and challenges lie ahead.

SB 24: Choice In Public Education Amendments

Consistent with the mission statement for public education adopted by the state, a school choice option was enacted by the 1992 Utah Legislature. Although allowing students to seek enrollment in the public school of their choice, the legislation proved limited in its

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representative from a local school board; one administrator from a local district; one representative from the PTA; and one representative from the Foundations for Parents Association. It is worth noting that invitations to serve on the selection committee were extended to the Utah Education Association and the State Board of Regents. Both groups, however, declined representation.

[21] These criteria are formally codified in a five-page form entitled, "Concept Evaluation Form: Selection Committee Evaluation From." Utah State Office of Education, Strategic Planning Section, 1993.

[22] Quoted by Twila Van Leer, "Leavitt Hails 85 Centennial Schools," Deseret News. Saturday, June 26, 1993: B1.

provisions.[23] In an effort to address these limitations as well as other logistical and procedural issues, the 1993 Legislature offered several amendments to the Choice in Public Education Act.

To begin with, specific procedures regarding the inter- and intra-district transfer of students were articulated. According to enacted amendments, schools that fell below their designated threshold capacity were required to make allowances for open enrollments.[24] In addition, provisions surrounding the acceptance of enrollment transfers were addressed. Whereas initial legislation confined the acceptance of transfer applications to the month of January, an amendment was offered to extend this window as dictated by necessity. Local districts were granted the authority to make this decision. At the same time, however, the authority to determine the enrollment capacities for individual schools was retained by the state.[25]

Perhaps the most important amendment of the Choice in Public Education statute, however, is that of funding. In 1992, the Legislature declared that state funds follow those students who choose to exercise choice in a district other than their own. Thus, depending upon a given student's weighted appropriation (WPU), receiving districts were funded for each incoming student. While this provision proved to be a fair and equitable allocation of state funds, no provisions were made to insure the equitable distribution of those funds generated at the local level. Consequently, locally generated funds were lost to those students who chose to transfer to other districts. In an effort to move towards a more equitable allocation of local funds, the 1993 Legislature mandated that local districts release to receiving districts one half of those funds generated locally for each student leaving a district.[26]

Considered together, these amendments should function to increase the freedom parents and students enjoy in regards to choice. Given the fact that they will receive a higher level of compensation for incoming students, local districts will also benefit.[27] Nevertheless, in spite of these amendments, the school choice option remains somewhat limited in its provisions. This is particularly true in regards to transportation. Although the 1993

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[23] See Sperry & Johnson, 1993: 12.

[24] For schools whose enrollments exceed the designated capacity defined by the state, the choice regarding the acceptance of students who reside outside of the boundaries of the school and district remains with the local board. Utah Code, 53A-2-207 (3).

[25] Utah Code, 53A-2-207.

[26] Utah Code, 53A-2-210 (2). This may sound more confusing than it actually is. It may prove easier to understand when conceived as an equation. Receiving districts will receive the following funds for each incoming student: (state allotment + 1/2 local allotment of the sending district).

[27] This remains true in spite of the fact that districts differ in the amounts of educational revenue raised locally beyond state funding.

Legislature left open the possibility of future funding, the failure of the state to underwrite those transportation costs associated with choice will effectively deny certain families--those who have neither the money nor time to transport their children to school--the opportunity to choose. Thus, as it currently reads, the legislation will continue to discriminate against the disadvantaged.

HB 39: Coordinated Services for Children and Youth At Risk Amendments

Since its creation in 1989, the Coordinated Services for At Risk Children and Youth Act has been amended by the Utah Legislature on three separate occasions. Revisions made during the 1993 Session have resulted in a new name for the program and an expansion of service provisions. Renamed the "Agencies Coming Together for Children and Youth At Risk Act," the emergence of this particular legislation in Utah may be understood as an expression of a broader national movement aimed at improving the delivery of numerous social services through inter-agency integration and collaboration.[28] At present, four state agencies have been authorized to develop and implement comprehensive systems of services for children and youth at risk and their families. These agencies are the Department of Human Services, the State Office of Education, the Department of Health, and the Office of the Court Administrator. The latter agency represents an addition of the 1993 Legislature.

Among the latest revisions to the act, a redefinition of the targeted "at risk" population is indeed a significant one. Whereas initially defined as children in grades kindergarten through three, this population is now defined as "all persons from birth to age 18 and disabled persons age 18 to 21".[29] More specifically, among these age groups those individuals who require "appropriate and uniquely designed intervention" to achieve literacy, advance through school, achieve at a level commensurate with their ability or participate in society as "competent" and "responsible" citizens are further identified as candidates for program participation.[30]

In addition, the authority and responsibilities given to the State Council for Children and Youth at Risk--the initial state-level committee created and charged with coordinating efforts for the Act--have been further delineated and expanded. As mandated by the 1993 Legislature, this council has been given the added responsibility of increasing and enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of services to at risk children and youth across the state.[31] Towards this end, two additional sets of governing bodies were created by the legislature.

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[28] Utah Code, 63-75-1 (1).

[29] Utah Code, 63-75-3 (1).

[30] Ibid.

[31] Utah Code, 63-75-4 (3).

To assist the state council in coordinating and monitoring local implementation efforts, the Steering Committee for Children and Youth At Risk was created by the 1993 Legislature. This state-level committee is made up of representatives from each of the four state agencies noted above. As a means of coordinating and delivering integrated services at the local level, the 1993 Legislature likewise mandated the creation of Local Interagency Councils. Under the supervision of the state council, the ultimate responsibility of planning, coordinating, and implementing the face-to-face delivery of needed to social services falls to these local government entities.

The final revision of the Coordinated Services Act by the 1993 Legislature involves the transition of current prevention programs from pilot to permanent status and the creation of a new pilot program for at risk infants. Regarding the former, expansion authorization has been granted for the inclusion of grades four, five, and six in current prevention programs among certain Chapter I schools. Regarding the latter, a hospital-based intervention pilot for high risk infants and their families is currently being planned.

As is evidenced in this general description, several features characterize the Agencies Working Together Act as amended by the 1993 Utah Legislature. In sum, the identification of a wider group of targeted recipients, the creation of additional governing entities to implement the program, and the expansion of services offered will create increased demands for continued and increased funding of this piece of legislation.

HB 48: Public Education Class Size Reduction

That Utah has the highest pupil-teacher ratio in the nation is a well-documented fact.[32] Given the state's recent population growth and the unusually high percentage of citizens below the age of 18, this should come as no surprise. A longitudinal, summary comparison of this ratio can be found in Table 8.2. As is noted, the difference between Utah and the nation has been consistent over time. Since 1991, however, the legislature has mandated the reduction of class size in certain elementary grades. Using a targeted figure of 20 students per class, annual appropriations have been forthcoming by the legislature. These are likewise summarized in Table 8.2.[33] When compared with the pupil-teacher ratio statistics, it can be concluded that only modest declines in the pupil-teacher ratio have been witnessed in Utah since that time.

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[32] In recent years, Utah has consistently had the highest pupil-teacher ratio in the nation. See National Education Association publications on Ranking of States.

[33] An appropriation of approximately $9 million was made by the 1990 Legislature for class size reduction. However, local participation was not mandated; the program was optional for local districts. A separate bill mandating class size reduction for all districts appeared for the first time in 1991.

Table 8.2
Annual Pupil-Teacher Ratios and Legislative Class-Reduction Appropriations
Pupil-Teacher Ratio

YEAR	Utah	USA	Δ[a]	Appropriation	Targeted Grade	Targeted Class Size
1988-89	24.9	17.3	+7.6			
1989-90	24.7	17.2	+7.5			
1990-91	24.5	17.2	+7.3	$ 9,329,126[b]	K - 3	24
1991-92	23.9	17.2	+6.7	$ 4,800,000	1	20
1992-93	23.1	17.2	+5.9	$ 4,000,000	2	20
1993-94	-	-	-	$11,053,098	K - 2	20

a) Difference between USA and Utah Pupil-Teacher ratio, (Utah Ratio - USA Ratio).

b) In this year (1990-91) funds for class size reduction were made available by the Utah Legislature but participation by districts was optional.

Sources: U.S. Department of Education, Digest of Education Statistics, 1992.
Utah State Office of Education, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.
Laws of Utah, specially the following years: 1990, 1991, 1992, and 1993.

The year 1993 represents the third year of the state's class size reduction program. Three factors distinguish the current appropriation from previous efforts. First, the amount of funds appropriated has almost tripled. The reason for this is found in the second distinguishing factor: the number of targeted grades has expanded. Whereas in 1992 the legislature targeted grade one to be the recipient of funds, the 1993 Legislature has targeted grades kindergarten through two. Third, more flexibility in the use of these funds has been granted to local districts.[34] For example, given current legislation a district can choose to use the funds appropriated for this purpose in a handful of targeted schools as opposed to all schools in the district. Furthermore, as classes are reduced in the lower grades, districts may use funds to reduce classes up to the third grade. Given the fact of booming enrollments, moderately expanding revenues, and the current tax mood, the prospects of significantly reducing class size in Utah appear to be mediocre at best.

HB 396: Public School Dispute Resolution Act

The passage of House Bill 396[35] by the 1993 Utah Legislature constitutes a potentially significant new development in the organization and control of Utah's public schools. By its enactment, the law provides formal legislative recognition of the negotiated collective bargaining process between local boards of education in Utah and certificated professional employees. In spite of the absence of regulating legislation, such bargaining has been conducted for many years in Utah. Passage of the Public School Dispute Resolution Act is interpreted by many as the beginning provisions of such a law.

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[34] Utah Code, 53A-17a-124.5.

[35] Utah Code 53A-6-401, 402.

Although not labeled as a collective bargaining act, key provisions within the law address many critical elements found in most comprehensive bargaining laws. For example, HB 396 specifically identifies those conditions which constitute an impasse; establishes provisions for impasse resolution; infers that exclusive representation will be the mode of bargaining representation to be practiced within the state; and, designates the state superintendent of public instruction as the agent to determine majority status of any professional organization for bargaining purposes.

Given Utah's strong "right-to-work" tradition and historical resistance to collective bargaining legislation for education, the enactment of the Dispute Resolution Act by a conservative legislature and newly elected Republican governor is somewhat surprising. This is particularly noteworthy given the marginal level of resistance encountered by the bill. Perhaps HB 396 caught the public and others offguard or was not fully recognized for what it is or may become. Furthermore, such a reaction might be indicative of changing attitudes towards labor legislation in Utah.

HB 435: Expansion of the Strategic Planning Task Force

Much like the state's system of public education, Utah's system of higher education is facing a number of pressures which have captured the attention of lawmakers. Chief among these are two, which when juxtaposed, would appear to be the primary source of concern in the state: enrollment growth and funding. As enrollments expand beyond expenditures, leaders at the state's institutions of higher learning find themselves re-prioritizing and redefining the missions of their institutions in an effort to favorably position themselves for future funding considerations. The end result has been an increase in the level of competition among these institutions for various scarce resources.

To address this increased pressure, the 1993 Utah Legislature voted to expand strategic planning efforts for higher education in the state. The focus of action, as expressed in HB 435, was the Strategic Planning Task Force on Education created in 1990.[36] The purpose of HB 435 was two-fold: 1) to increase the representation of higher education on this Task Force through membership expansion; and 2) to facilitate the emergence of a more complementary set of policies between public and higher education in the state. Following passage of the bill, the strategic planning team was expanded from 17 to 27 members and given the additional charges of: developing a strategic plan to address the critical issues facing the state's system of higher education; developing a unified vision and mission for higher education; identifying the appropriate objectives to realize this vision; monitoring and evaluating the progress of the system in achieving identified objectives; and submitting an annual report of progress to the legislature.[37]

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[36] For a detailed description of this Task Force, its planning process, and the Utah State Public Education Strategic Plan, 1992-1997 see Sperry and Johnson, 1993: 8f. See also Utah Code, 53A-1a-201f.

The emergence of this legislation for strategic planning in post-secondary education is indicative of the pressure which exists within the state's system of higher education. The expansion of the Strategic Planning Task Force for the purposes of increasing higher education representation may be seen as an authoritative response to this pressure. Given current and predicted enrollment trends, the intensity of this pressure on the system is likely to increase. Consequently, the work of this committee deserves careful attention.

HB 110: Parental Involvement in Public Schools Amendments

In 1992, the Utah Legislature enacted as a part of the Utah Strategic Planning Act for Educational Excellence[38] a provision relating to parental participation in the educational process.[39] This provision of the act specifically noted the important role of parents in the education of children and encouraged employers to develop policies and programs that would allow parents greater participation in the public education system of their children during school hours. House Bill 110, which was enacted by the 1993 Legislature, specifically calls upon each local board of education within the state to develop a parental involvement policy.[40] The policies are expected to provide parents with the opportunity to be actively involved in their children's education and to be informed of (1) the importance of the involvement of parents in directly affecting the success of their children's educational efforts and (2) groups and organizations that may provide instruction and training to parents to help improve their children's academic success and support of their academic efforts.

HB 436: Educational Professional Practices Amendments

The 1993 Legislature increased the authority of the Utah Professional Practices Commission in (1) allowing the commission to receive and use expunged evidence related to an allegation of sexual abuse by an educator of a student or of a minor; and (2) permitting the commission to recommend that the State Board of Education restrict or prohibit an individual's recertification.[41]

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[37] This charge is in addition to the charge of developing a strategic plan for "public education" given by the Utah Legislature to Strategic Planning Task Force on Education in 1990. Utah Code, 53A-1a-201f.

[38] Utah Code 53A-1a-101.

[39] Utah Code 53A-1A-105.

[40] Utah Code 53A-1A-105 (3).

SB 44: Student Discipline in Public Schools

Senate Bill No. 44[42] authorized the use of school community councils[43] or school directors[44] in the adoption of rules and procedures on school discipline. Procedures adopted by such bodies must conform with applicable local school board policies, state statutes, and federal laws. The provision also requires a review, at least every four years, of any rules and procedures adopted.

HCR 1: Teacher Inservice Resolution

A concurrent resolution of the legislature requested that the State Board of Education and the State Board of Regents form an ad hoc committee to develop recommendations for teacher pre-service and in-service programs structured to help accomplish the mission of public education and to meet the state's educational needs for the 21st Century. Reasons noted in the resolution justifying the need for altered teacher training programs stemmed from recent educational restructuring developments including the ongoing revision of teacher certification requirements, Shift in Focus, the Utah Strategic Planning Act for Educational Excellence, and the Educational Technology Initiative. The ad hoc committee was asked to report its findings to the Education Interim Committee and the Governor prior to the 1994 General Session.

Conclusion

As noted above, the purpose of this chapter has been to provide the reader with an overview and description of significant education legislation passed during the 1993 Utah legislative Session. Specific attention has been given to legislation that affects the governance and structure of education in the State. The following bills were identified and discussed:

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[41] Utah Code 53A-7-110.

[42] Utah Code 53A-11-901, 902, 903.

[43] In 1992, The Utah Legislature enacted as a part of the "Utah Strategic Planning Act for Educational Excellence" a provision authorizing and encouraging a community council at each school building level to assist with the development and maintenance of the public school characteristics delineated in the plan (see Utah Code 53A-1a-108).

[44] "School directors" means the group of individuals empowered by a school district delegation document to implement a centennial school program at a public elementary or secondary school as authorized by the 1993 Legislature (see Centennial Schools Program, Utah Code 53A-1a-301).

HB 100	Centennial Schools Program
SB 24	Choice in Public Education Amendments
HB 39	Coordinated Services for Children At Risk Amendments
HB 48	Public Education Class Size Reduction
HB 396	Public School Dispute Resolution Act
HB 435	Expansion of the Strategic Planning Task Force
HB 110	Parental Involvement in the Public Schools
HB 436	Educational Professional Practices Amendments
SB 44	Student Discipline in the Public Schools
HCR 1	Teacher Inservice Resolution

With the exception of the Centennial Schools Program, none of those actions noted above represent a radical departure from existing practices. Most represent refinements to existing legislation or the codification of that which exists de facto.

As the center-piece of newly elected Governor Leavitt's educational proposals and definitive educational action of the 1993 Legislature, the Centennial Schools Program personifies many of the ideas expressed in the Utah State Public Education Strategic Plan, 1992-1997. While many questions surround its viability as an instrument of reform, it is likely to remain an important part of the Governor's educational agenda throughout the duration of his tenure. Thus, the chances of continued and increased funding of the Program in 1994 are high.

Other educational concerns which can be expected to capture the attention of lawmakers in 1994 are general funding issues, enrollment issues, and the Educational Technology Initiative (ETI). Given recent speeches by the Governor, ETI would appear to be the focus of future reform efforts in state. The program is up for renewed funding in 1994.

While a description of this sort is seen as beneficial, the actions by the 1993 Legislative Session should not be considered in isolation. The reader is encouraged to consider the educational enactments of the 1993 Session within the context of recent reform efforts in the state. Many of the ideas expressed in specific legislation noted in this chapter are rooted in educational discussions, events, and problems which preceded the 1993 Session.

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